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ABSTRACT

Intended for reference purposes, this pamphlet describes the state system of education and the general policy implemented in Britain, including England, Wales, Scotland, and Northern Ireland. Among notable features of the system are the large number of students participating, the freedom of teachers from official direction, the decentralization of administration, the prominent part played by voluntary agencies, the academic autonomy of the universities, and the system of financial support for students in higher education. Historical development and administration of the public system of primary, secondary, adult education, and higher education are fully described. Short sections are included on teachers and teaching aids, educational research, and educational building. Appendices include information on educational statistics and government departments and educational organisations. A bibliography of official publications, COI Reference material, and other publications is provided. (Author/SJM)

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INTRODUCTION

THE AIM of the State system of education in Britain[1] is to provide a comprehensive service for all who can profit from it: 'to secure for children a happier childhood and a better start in life; to ensure a fuller measure of educational opportunity for young people and to provide means for all of developing the various talents with which they are endowed and so enriching the inheritance of the country whose citizens they are'.

Among the most notable features of the system are the large number participating (over 95 per cent of schoolchildren are at publicly maintained or assisted schools), the freedom of teachers from official direction, the decentralisation of its administration, the prominent part played by voluntary agencies, the academic autonomy of the universities and the system of financial support for students in higher education.

It is also a rapidly expanding system, due partly to the rising population but also to the greater numbers of young people staying voluntarily at school after the minimum school-leaving age or going on to further education. Education is compulsory between the ages of 5 and 15, and the school-leaving age is to be raised to 16 in 1972–73.

In Britain as a whole, in the decade 1960–70 (see Table 1, p. 82), the total school population rose from some 8·8 million to nearly 10 million, the numbers in institutions of further education rose from 2·5 million to some 3·5 million, those in teacher training from over 43,700 to over 135,000, and those at universities (full-time) from 111,018 to over 226,000. These increases have created the need for more teachers and buildings. The numbers of full-time teachers in maintained and aided schools rose from some 324,000 to over 389,000 and over 6·8 million new school places have been brought into use since 1946. Expenditure on education from public funds (a significant figure since the bulk of educational expenditure comes from this source) increased by about 164 per cent in the same period to a record figure of £2,310·3 million in 1969–70; expressed as a proportion of the gross national product, it rose from 4·2 per cent to over 6 per cent. The increase goes to meet the greater demands made and also to effect improvements in the service.

This pamphlet describes the educational system and the general policy being implemented throughout Britain. Since, however, the systems of England and Wales, Scotland and Northern Ireland developed independently and are separately administered, there are certain distinctions between them. In the interests of clarity the systems are described separately with two exceptions: the section on university education covers Great Britain (England, Wales and Scotland) and that on educational broadcasting the whole of Britain. To save repetition the sections on Scotland and Northern Ireland concentrate on their distinctive features. Selected statistics for the whole of Britain are given in Appendix 1, p. 82.

[1]In this pamphlet the terms 'Britain' and 'United Kingdom' are used synonymously to mean England, Wales, Scotland and Northern Ireland together. Great Britain includes only England, Wales and Scotland.

PART I: ENGLAND AND WALES

HISTORICAL DEVELOPMENT

ENGLAND AND WALES have a long tradition of education for those wanting to go to university, but the provision of education for all dates only from the end of the nineteenth century when the government began to take a more positive responsibility for social welfare.

The first government grants for education were made in 1833, but the main development of publicly provided primary education dates from the Elementary Education Act 1870, which accepted the principle of compulsory elementary education with government aid; its object was virtually achieved by the end of the nineteenth century. Public provision of secondary education dates from 1889 in Wales and 1902 in England. The system in England and Wales is now governed by the Education Act 1944, which aimed to widen and improve educational opportunities at every stage.

The earliest provision for elementary education was in parish and 'dame' schools. By the late eighteenth century there was a fairly wide network of charity schools, mainly established through the Society for Promoting Christian Knowledge. Then, as a result of the social and economic changes generated by the Industrial Revolution and the enormous growth in population, voluntary provision for elementary education was greatly extended; the Sunday Schools (for children at work during the week) were among the first to try to provide facilities on a national scale. They were followed at the beginning of the nineteenth century by the monitorial[1] schools of the National Society (as it was usually known; its full title was the National Society for Promoting the Education of the Poor in the Principles of the Church of England) and the non-denominational British and Foreign School Society. Their educational methods were associated with the names of Bell and Lancaster.

England has a much longer tradition of secondary education (for boys) provided by the endowed grammar and public schools; nearly all were religious foundations. One public school, King's School, Canterbury, traces its origins back to the sixth century. Winchester and Eton, founded with associations with the universities of Oxford and Cambridge, date from the fourteenth and fifteenth centuries, and many others from the sixteenth century, the classic period for the foundation of the endowed grammar schools. These schools prepared their pupils, by way of the universities, mainly for the learned professions, especially the Church and the Law. Latin and, later, Greek were the essential subjects; 'grammar', meaning Latin grammar, gave the schools their name. Certain of them began to be known as 'public' schools as they outgrew their purely local associations.

University education dates from the late twelfth and early thirteenth centuries with the foundation of Oxford and Cambridge: their first colleges were established in the middle of the thirteenth century. They were the only

[1] In these schools the headmaster was in sole charge and taught only the monitors (selected older children), who passed on the instruction they had received to groups of pupils.

universities in England and Wales until the nineteenth century, when 13 more were founded, in most cases originally as colleges. In London, University College was opened in 1828, and, unlike Oxford and Cambridge, imposed no religious test; King's College on the other hand was founded as a Church of England institution in 1829. The University of London, for many years a purely examining body, was formed in 1836. The University of Durham (1832) was established in connection with the cathedral and took Oxford as its model. From 1880 onwards other universities were founded in the growing industrial cities. They had their origins in science, technical or general colleges founded after 1850. Students of such colleges usually sat externally for the degrees of London University, and eventually, when the number of students and the finances of the institutions warranted, the colleges received independent charters as universities in their own right.

Such technical education as existed by the time of the first government grants for education came through trade guilds and the apprenticeship system.

The universities and nearly all the older schools were, since they were religious foundations, confirmed as the preserve of the Established Church of England by the Act of Uniformity 1662. The exclusion of non-conformists led to the establishment of 'dissenting academies' which were active until the greater religious toleration of the late eighteenth and early nineteenth centuries. These academies had a breadth of curriculum, unique at the time, which exerted a great influence on educational reform in the nineteenth century.

The consequences of the Industrial Revolution during the early nineteenth century led to efforts to bring pressure to bear on the government to prevent the exploitation of children in mines and factories. The humanitarians were backed up by the influence of the Methodist and Evangelical Revivals and legislation was brought in under which the government accepted some responsibility for the improvement of social conditions. The 1830s, when Parliament made its first grant for education, was also the decade in which the first Reform Act (reforming parliamentary representation), the first substantial Factory Act, and a law abolishing slavery in the British Empire were passed.

The first parliamentary grant for education (£20,000 in 1833) was divided between the National Society and the British and Foreign Schools Society. Other bodies starting schools received aid (for buildings) and a regular grant system for elementary education was established.

The government began to exercise control at the same time. In 1839 a special committee of the Privy Council was established to administer government grants and to consider all matters affecting the education of the people. In 1856 it was succeeded by the Education Department of the Privy Council.

The growing interest in education by the second half of the nineteenth century and its increased importance in national policy was shown by the establishment of commissions of inquiry: on the state of popular education (the Newcastle Report, 1861), on nine of the public schools (the Clarendon Report, 1864) and on other secondary schools (the Taunton Report, 1868).

The Acts and Reports of 1870–99

The Elementary Education Act was passed in 1870, three years after the second Reform Act gave the vote to working-class people in towns. The

Education Act, the most important educational development of the century, for the first time empowered the government itself to provide educational facilities. Popularly elected School Boards could be set up to manage schools for pupils between the ages of 5 and 13 in areas where no voluntary schools existed or the provision of elementary education was inadequate. This was the beginning of the controversial 'dual' system of two types of grant-aided elementary schools, one provided by the churches and voluntary bodies (nearly all religious bodies) and the other by the State through school boards.

The effect of progress in elementary education was to emphasise how much needed to be done for secondary and for scientific and technical education and also for the administration of the educational system. Grants were made for science classes from 1859; the Technical Instruction Act 1889 empowered local authorities to spend part of the rates on technical instruction; and some school boards started to provide secondary education, finding that they could not restrict themselves to providing elementary education where facilities for secondary education were in demand and were obviously inadequate. A Royal Commission report on secondary education (the Bryce Report, 1895) made recommendations on the content of secondary education and the administration of the system which were embodied in the Act of 1902.

The government's powers were strengthened by the Board of Education Act of 1899, which established a Board of Education and provided for a consultative committee.

Education for Girls

The establishment of Queen's College, in Harley Street, London, in 1848, marked the first step towards secondary education for girls. Two other well-known schools followed: in 1850 the North London Collegiate School under Frances Mary Buss, and in 1854 Cheltenham Ladies' College, which from 1858 to 1906 was under an equally famous headmistress, Dorothea Beale. In 1869 the Endowed Schools Act laid down that, in forming schemes under the Act, 'provision shall be made as far as conveniently may be for extending to girls the benefits of endowments'. In 1873 the Girls' Public Day School Trust was formed and by 1891 it had established 36 high schools.

At the same time higher education was gradually being made available to women. Bedford College, London, was started in 1849. In 1869 Girton College, Cambridge, was founded; Newnham College followed in 1871 and the first two Oxford women's colleges in 1879. In 1878 London University degrees were opened to women and full membership was granted in 1880. In 1892 women were admitted to the four Scottish universities, and in the next year to the University of Wales. The Cambridge Tripos examinations were opened to women in 1881, but it was not until 1920 in Oxford and 1948 in Cambridge that women were accorded the full status of members of the university. All the colleges of London University established for women only now take men as well.

Education Act 1902

The Education Act 1902 introduced for the first time a co-ordinated national system of education, and, with its emphasis on local administration, is still the basis of much of the education system. School boards were abolished and

the elected councils of counties, county boroughs, boroughs and urban districts (created at the end of the nineteenth century) made the local education authorities. Their duties included appointing non-elected education committees, some of whose members were to have educational expertise.

All local education authorities took over the school boards' responsibilities for elementary education. The larger authorities (the councils of counties and county boroughs) were additionally made responsible for the provision of secondary and technical education and their powers also included training teachers (great shortages of teachers had been shown up by the extension of education), providing scholarships and paying students' college and hostel fees. These aspects of the education system developed rapidly.

Another important feature of the Act was the power it gave to local education authorities over voluntary schools, while maintaining and strengthening the 'dual' system. The continuance of voluntary schools on a stable economic basis was ensured by the requirement that local education authorities should maintain schools which wished them to do so; in this event they would assume control of secular instruction and the management of the schools.

The Period 1918–38

The succeeding Acts and official reports concentrated on widening opportunities.

The Education Act 1918 (the Fisher Act) raised the upper age of compulsory attendance without exemptions to 14 and it charged local education authorities with the duty of providing advanced and practical instruction for older children in secondary schools other than grammar schools. It also provided for part-time compulsory attendance at day continuation schools for boys and girls between 14 and 18 who had given up full-time schooling, although this last provision was not put into effect because of the economic difficulties after the end of the first world war in 1918.

In 1926 the consultative committee of the Board of Education issued a report on the education of the adolescent (the Hadow Report). This report, which influenced subsequent educational organisation deeply, proposed a complete educational break for all children at the age of 11 and transfer to separate schools for older children, according to ability. The report also recommended the raising of the school-leaving age to 15, so as to ensure at least four years' progressive schooling for children over 11.

In 1938 a further report of the consultative committee (the Spens Report), proposed an alternative type of secondary school admitting children at 11—the technical high school. This was in effect an expansion of the existing junior technical schools which recruited boys and girls from the elementary schools at 13. The committee also recommended the continued development of secondary education in separate grammar, technical and modern schools—the 'tripartite' system.

Widespread development took place in the 20 years after the first world war, especially in the increase in the number of publicly provided secondary schools giving a grammar school education, the development of separate 'senior' schools for other older children from elementary schools, and the advance of technical education.

The Education Act of 1936 was designed to make the reorganisation of

secondary education possible, but many of its provisions, including the raising of the school-leaving age from 14 to 15 from September 1939, were nullified by the outbreak of the second world war. However, preparations for thoroughgoing educational reforms began during the war.

Relations between the State and the universities developed during this period. Until 1914 the universities were virtually self-supporting but their financial difficulties after the first world war led the government to set up the University Grants Committee in 1919, as a standing committee of the Treasury. Its original function was to advise the government on university finance and to administer government grants. In 1946 its terms of reference were widened so that, with the universities' assistance, it could relate the development of higher education to national needs. The amount of government finance (see p. 45) has increased steadily.

The Education Act 1944

In July 1943 the government's proposals were presented to Parliament in a White Paper, *Educational Reconstruction* (Cmd. 6458). These proposals were generally accepted and welcomed throughout the country and were embodied in the Education Act 1944, which superseded all existing Education Acts. It re-framed the public system of education and provided for the inspection of schools outside the system. The main parts of the Act came into operation on 1 April 1945.

Among the more important changes under the Act were the promotion to ministerial status and increase in power for the President of the Board of Education and for his department, which became the Ministry of Education. For the first time the minister was given effective power to secure development of a national policy for education (under earlier legislation the board had merely supervised matters relating to education). The upper age limit for compulsory school attendance was to be raised to 15 not later than 1 April 1947 (this was enforced on the appointed date), and subsequently to 16 when the minister was satisfied that sufficient buildings and teachers were available. The old division into elementary and higher education was replaced by the threefold classification: primary, secondary and further education.

For the first time the educational process was regarded as a continuous one through which all children and young people would pass. In particular, all children were to be given a full-time secondary education. The Act defined the powers of the minister and of the local education authorities with regard to the extension of technical training, of further education in county colleges, and of adult education. All remaining tuition fees in secondary schools maintained by local education authorities were abolished; extended provision was made for university scholarships and maintenance grants and for the payment of fees at fee-paying schools in some circumstances.

The local education authorities were required to prepare and submit to the minister development plans covering primary, secondary, and also further education, including technical and adult education.

Developments Since 1944

Schools

Since 1944 nearly all aspects of the educational system have been examined

in the light of modern educational thought and practice and the need to accommodate the changing requirements of society, particularly the pressures created by a growing population and demands for wider educational opportunities.

Primary education and the transition to secondary education were examined in *Children and their Primary Schools*, a report of the Central Advisory Council (England) under the chairmanship of Lady Plowden, published in 1967 (HMSO, £1·25). Among the report's recommendations were a new structure for primary education composed of a three-year infant and a four-year junior course (involving the establishment of 'middle' schools which children would enter at the age of 8 and leave at 12, the age, it was considered, when secondary education should begin); the establishment of educational priority areas in the poorer neighbourhoods to which more teachers and finance would be channelled—'a policy of positive discrimination in favour of areas where children are most deprived socially'; the expansion of nursery education; and the involvement of parents more fully in the life of primary schools. Implicit in these recommendations was the ending of 'eleven-plus' selection—the practice of allocating pupils to different types of secondary schools or courses on the basis of selection tests taken at the age of 11 (see p. 17). In recent years this has been the subject of lively debate and discussion. The policy announced by the government in 1970 was that local education authorities should be free to determine their own forms of secondary organisation, subject only to the plans being suitable for local needs and representative of local wishes, and making a wise use of resources.

The particular needs of Welsh children in primary education—many of them grow up in a bi-lingual environment—were studied by the Central Advisory Council (Wales) under the chairmanship of Professor Gittins (see p. 15).

The Central Advisory Council (England)—see p. 10—has produced two important reports on the educational needs of secondary-school-age pupils. In 1959, *15 to 18* (HMSO, 62½p), the report of the council under the chairmanship of Sir Geoffrey (now Lord) Crowther, recommended raising the school-leaving age from 15 to 16 and a planned programme of experiment leading to the introduction in the early 1970s of compulsory part-time education up to the age of 18 for all boys and girls not in full-time education (this was the intended purpose of the county colleges, provided for in the 1944 Act, but few of them have been set up because priority has had to be given to the need for full-time education). It also recommended the substitution of two school-leaving dates each year for the existing three (achieved by the Education Act 1962).

In 1963, the council, under the chairmanship of Mr. (later Sir) John Newsom, published a report, *Half our Future* (HMSO, 42½p), which was concerned with children of average and less-than-average ability in the 13–16 age groups. This report also recommended that the school-leaving age should be raised and suggested that there should be a longer school day for pupils aged between 14 and 16. It urged that a wider range of courses should be provided for the older pupils and that attention should be paid both to imaginative experience through the arts and to their personal and social development. It proposed lines for guidance to adolescent boys and girls on

sexual behaviour and suggested that the school courses in the final year should be outward-looking, as an initiation into the adult world of work and leisure.

Further and Higher Education

The structure of technical education has been reorganised since 1944, as outlined in three White Papers: *Technical Education* (Cmd. 9703), *Better Opportunities in Technical Education* (Cmnd. 1254) and *Plan for Polytechnics and Other Colleges* (Cmnd. 3006) (see p. 29).

A number of completely new universities have been founded in the second half of the twentieth century. Keele, which started as the University College of North Staffordshire in 1949, became a full university in 1962. The others broke with tradition by being established as full universities from the start. In addition, some major technological colleges were given university status in 1965 (see pp. 41–3). Considerable progress has been made in increasing the opportunities for higher scientific education inside and outside universities. The rapid development of advanced work generally outside universities and the growth of the colleges of education have extended the scope of higher education. In this context, the Open University, which provides its own degrees and is open to applicants irrespective of academic qualifications, is of particular importance (see p. 43). A survey of all higher education in Great Britain was carried out by a committee under the chairmanship of Lord Robbins, which issued a report, *Higher Education* (Cmnd. 2154), in 1963 (see p. 41).

ADMINISTRATION AND FINANCE

ADMINISTRATION of the public system of primary, secondary and further education is divided between central government, local education authorities, and various voluntary organisations. Relations between these three groups are based on consultation and co-operation, both by direct contact between the parties and through Her Majesty's Inspectors, whose duties enable them to act as liaison officers between local education authorities and the central departments. The universities are self-governing and, except for the Open University, their relations with the government are conducted through the University Grants Committee.

THE DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION AND SCIENCE

All aspects of education in England, of further education in Wales and of universities throughout Great Britain (as well as some aspects of civil science and the arts) are the responsibility of the Secretary of State for Education and Science who presides over the Department of Education and Science,[1] assisted by two Parliamentary Under-Secretaries. In addition the Paymaster General exercises responsibility for the arts, museums and libraries under the supervision of the Secretary of State. The staff consists of headquarters officials under a Permanent Secretary, and includes specialists of different types and Her Majesty's Inspectors, most of whose work is in the local education authorities' areas. The Secretary of State for Wales is responsible for primary and secondary education in Wales. This is administered through the Welsh Education Office in Cardiff.

Under the Education Act 1944 it is the duty of the Secretary of State for Education and Science to 'promote the education of the people of England and Wales and the progressive development of institutions devoted to that purpose, and to secure the effective execution by local authorities, under his control and direction, of the national policy for providing a varied and comprehensive educational service in every area'.

The department does not run schools or colleges or engage teachers, or prescribe text-books or curricula, but it does, for example, set minimum standards of educational provision; control the distribution and nature of educational buildings; control teacher training and supply, and determine the principles governing recognition of teachers as qualified; administer negotiated salary scales and a superannuation scheme for teachers; support some research at all levels within the education service, through the agency of the National Foundation for Educational Research, university departments and other bodies; support financially by direct grant a limited number of institutions of a special kind; and settle disputes, for example, between a parent and a local education authority, or between a local education authority and the managers of a school.

The Secretary of State's requirements under the Education Act are mainly

[1]The Ministry of Education became the Department of Education and Science in April 1964.

issued in the form of statutory regulations and circulars addressed to local education authorities and other bodies. Although ultimate powers in most matters are retained by the Secretary of State, real autonomy is enjoyed by the education committees of the publicly elected local authorities. It is also a feature of the education system that, since responsibility for it is so widely distributed, decisions reached centrally are made with the benefit of advice from many sources. These include Her Majesty's Inspectors, standing and *ad hoc* committees, professional associations and voluntary bodies.

Her Majesty's Inspectors, who are responsible for the inspection of all schools, including independent schools, and other educational institutions such as polytechnics and colleges of further education, administered by local education authorities throughout the country, review and report on the content and value of the education provided in these establishments and are available as advisers to individual teachers. The inspectors, of whom there are about 550 in England and Wales, give professional advice to the department, conduct courses for serving teachers and prepare advisory pamphlets.

Advisory Bodies

The most important of the standing committees are the Central Advisory Councils (one for England and one for Wales) established under the Education Act 1944.[1] Their duty is to advise the Secretary of State on matters referred to them; they may also take the initiative. Membership changes with each assignment. It is these councils which have produced, in recent years, the Crowther, Newsom, Plowden and Gittins reports (see p. 7).

Two non-statutory committees are concerned with specific aspects of the education service: the National Advisory Council on Education for Industry and Commerce and the National Advisory Council on Art Education.

A number of independent bodies have an important influence on the educational system. One of these is the Schools Council for Curriculum and Examinations, established by the Secretary of State for Education and Science in 1964, which represents all educational interests. Its aim is to stimulate and support essentially school-based efforts to reassess curricula, teaching methods and examinations in primary and secondary schools. The first body to be concerned with the whole range of school curricula and examinations, the council seeks to identify research needs (not necessarily carrying out the research itself) and to develop and test teaching materials with the co-operation of schools and local authorities. It publishes information about the latest developments. (For some of its research interests, see p. 19.)

Apart from the professional associations, some of which are listed on p. 88, there are many active voluntary bodies, the existence of which indicates a wide public interest in education. They include the local associations, linked nationally through the Confederation for the Advancement of State Education and composed of people, mainly parents, who wish to co-operate with local education authorities and to encourage closer relations between schools

[1]The Central Advisory Council for Education (England) last met in October 1966 and that for Wales in March 1967. The terms of office of all the members expired shortly afterwards and no new members have been appointed.

and the general public; the Council for Educational Advance, which developed from the non-political Campaign for Education launched in 1963; the Advisory Centre for Education, a non-profit-making body which provides, with professional assistance, an educational information service and has established the National Extension College (see p. 39); the Careers Research and Advisory Centre, another non-profit-making body; and, at school level, the parent-teacher associations which are linked nationally through the National Federation of Parent-Teacher Associations, founded in 1956.

LOCAL EDUCATION AUTHORITIES

Responsibility for providing education at three levels—primary, secondary and further—to meet the needs of their areas rests with local education authorities, the elected councils of 163[1] counties and county boroughs.[2] The councils appoint education committees comprising some of their own members (a majority of the committee) and people with experience in education and knowledge of local educational conditions. The education authorities plan the arrangement of schooling in their areas, subject to the Secretary of State's approval, and decide how children should be allocated between schools. They build most of the schools, pay teachers and provide equipment and materials. They have an inspectorate for liaison with the schools, but decisions about curricula are made by head teachers (see p. 15).

Some of the powers of local education authorities are exercised on their behalf in certain county areas by Excepted Districts and Divisional Executives.[3]

FINANCE

Local authorities disburse the greatest proportion of the total expenditure on public education and this is by far the largest item of their expenditure. They are financed by a combination of revenue from rates (a local property tax) and a rate support grant (for certain local services including the education service) from the Department of the Environment. It is estimated that in 1971–72 Exchequer assistance will amount to 57·5 per cent of total local authority expenditure on the services concerned.

In addition to local authority expenditure, direct grants are made by the Department of Education and Science to direct grant schools (see p. 20), some voluntary schools (see p. 13), non-maintained special schools, some further education establishments, voluntary colleges of education and voluntary youth organisations. The department also finances universities and

[1]This figure includes the Inner London Education Authority which, under the London Government Act 1963, has taken over the educational functions of the former London County Council for the 12 inner boroughs of the new Greater London Council. There are 20 separate education authorities (the outer London boroughs) in the outer area of the Greater London Council.

[2]Under the proposals for reorganisation of local government, the numbers of local education authorities are to be reduced from 146 to 93 in England and from 17 to 8 in Wales.

[3]Under the proposals for local government reform, Excepted Districts and Divisional Executives will disappear in the new structure.

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colleges through the University Grants Committee (UGC) (see p. 42) and provides direct grants to the Open University. Other direct expenditure by the department includes awards to students, research and administration.

In 1969–70 public expenditure on education in England and Wales (including universities, and the welfare services of school meals and milk) amounted to £1,979·5 million. Local authority expenditure represented about 85 per cent of this total. Expenditure on meals and milk alone was £103 million.

SCHOOLS

PARENTS are required by law to ensure that their children receive efficient full-time education at school or elsewhere between the ages of 5 and 15; from 1972–73 the minimum school-leaving age is to be raised to 16.

There are some 32,900 schools, of which about 30,000 are publicly maintained or assisted. The latter are attended by some 95 per cent of the 8·6 million schoolchildren. Nearly all maintained primary schools are co-educational; so are more than half the maintained secondary schools. Most are day schools. The majority of independent secondary schools are for boys only or for girls only, and many are boarding schools.

In the maintained sector, children may attend nursery schools or classes from 2 or 3 to 5, infant schools from 5 to 7, junior schools from 7 to 11, and secondary schools from 11 to 16, possibly up to 19.[1] In the independent sector transfer from primary to secondary education takes place at 13; children can attend nursery schools and kindergartens from 2 to 5, and those going to 'public' schools (see p. 21) usually attend pre-preparatory schools from 5 to 8 and preporatory schools from 8 to 13.

The average size of classes as registered is 32·5 in maintained primary schools. In maintained secondary schools the average size of class in lessons is 23.

MANAGEMENT OF PUBLICLY MAINTAINED SCHOOLS

Most schools supported from public funds are maintained by local education authorities. Maintained primary and secondary schools are of two types: *county schools* and *voluntary schools*. (Direct grant schools receiving grants from the Department of Education and Science are described on p. 20.) The amount of financial support of voluntary schools varies according to type.

County Schools

The county schools (19,000) are provided and wholly maintained by local authorities, that is, their full cost falls on public funds. Their managers or governors[2] are appointed by the local education authority.

Voluntary Schools

Most voluntary schools were originally provided by the religious denominations and the amount of money they receive from public funds varies in proportion to the degree of independence they have in giving denominational religious instruction (see p. 14). They are of three kinds: *controlled*, *aided* and *special agreement* schools. Together they constitute about a third (9,362) of the schools maintained by the local authorities. Over two-thirds of voluntary schools in England are Church of England schools, less than two-thirds in Wales are Church in Wales schools, and about 2,326 in England and Wales are

[1]Following a recommendation of the Plowden Report (see p. 7) there is a growing number —at present about 136—of middle schools, which children attend from the ages of 8, 9 or 10 to about 12, 13 or 14 (see p. 18).

[2]Primary schools have managers, secondary schools have governors.

Roman Catholic schools, and there are several hundreds belonging to other denominations, including a few of the Jewish faith.

Controlled Schools
Two-thirds of the managers or governors of controlled schools are nominated by the local education authorities and the remainder by the voluntary interests. All running and maintenance costs and costs of improvements are borne by the local education authorities, which also appoint and dismiss the teachers. The local education authorities must consult with the managers and gain their approval over the appointment of the head teacher and of teachers appointed to give denominational religious instruction.

Aided Schools
At aided schools the voluntary bodies appoint two-thirds of the managers or governors who maintain the exterior of the school buildings and make all improvements, enlargements or alterations to them. Up to 80 per cent of the approved expenditure may be reimbursed by the Department of Education and Science or the Welsh Education Office. The local education authorities pay for the maintenance of the interior of the building, pay the teachers and meet the general cost of running the school. Religious instruction and the appointment of teachers are controlled by the managers or governors.

Special Agreement Schools
Under the Education Act 1936 local education authorities were empowered by special agreement to undertake to pay between a half and three-quarters of the cost of building a new voluntary school for senior pupils. For these special agreement schools (which constitute a small category of secondary schools) two-thirds of the governors are appointed by the voluntary body and the remainder by the local education authority. Maintenance of such schools is normally apportioned between the local education authorities and the voluntary bodies, as for aided schools. Religious instruction is under the control of the governors.

Religious Instruction
All children attending schools that are wholly maintained by local education authorities (that is, county and controlled voluntary schools) receive religious instruction of an undenominational Christian character according to an agreed syllabus and take part in a daily corporate act of worship. The syllabus is agreed by a conference representing the religious denominations, the teachers and the local education authorities. In certain circumstances clergy have a right of access to county secondary schools to give denominational instruction to children of their persuasion for a limited period each week. In aided and special agreement voluntary schools denominational religious instruction may be given. Children normally take part in both religious worship and instruction as provided by the schools unless their parents ask for them to be withdrawn.

Control of Curricula
Although the local education authority decides what type a school shall be

and the managers or governors are responsible for the general direction of conduct and the curriculum, and although examination pressures force a certain amount of uniformity, head teachers are free within wide limits to organise schools according to their own ideas. Teachers are not bound by official instructions on syllabuses, text-books and teaching methods. Her Majesty's Inspectors review and report on the content and value of the education provided and are available as advisers. Local education authorities also employ inspectors to advise on the schools which they maintain. Further advice is made available to teachers as a result of research and development work organised by the Schools Council (see p. 10). The types of curricula common in primary and secondary schools are described on pp. 17–19.

Pupil–Teacher Ratio

There has been a continuing government policy to reduce the number of pupils per teacher in schools. In 1969 increasing emphasis was given to this by new guidelines issued to local authorities by the Secretary of State. These stressed the need to bring the standard of staffing in primary schools closer to that in the lower forms of secondary schools and recommended that special efforts should be made to eliminate classes of 40 or more (already reduced from 13·5 per cent of primary classes in 1964 to 6·7 per cent in 1970). The pupil–teacher ratio in England and Wales has improved from 25·1 to 1 in 1960 to 22·7 to 1 in 1970.

Bilingualism in Wales

A special problem for Welsh schools is that of language: Wales is a bilingual country and for many children Welsh is the language of the home. Bilingual education in Wales has long been accepted by the government and this principle was reaffirmed following the Gittins Report, *Primary Education in Wales*, published in 1968. The report recommended that the effective teaching of Welsh should be ensured in all primary schools, that the progressive gradual introduction of Welsh as a general medium of instruction should be encouraged and that as a general principle children should be taught in their mother tongue. The report also said that primary schoolchildren should be given full opportunity to learn effectively a second language, either Welsh or English.

In March 1969 the Secretary of State for Education and Science sent a circular to local authorities recommending that they should review and publish their language policies. The circular said that the bilingual policy was not compulsory but it was hoped that parents would support it. If parents chose to opt out, effective arrangements should be made for the pupils concerned. The Secretary of State promised to consider sympathetically proposals for establishing bilingual schools in mainly English-speaking areas. The circular welcomed the trend towards the introduction of the second language at an early stage in the primary curriculum and supported the Gittins recommendation that bilingual education should continue at least into the first year of the secondary school.

PRIMARY EDUCATION

Schooling becomes compulsory for children at the age of five. Primary

education usually lasts until the age of 11. The age of transfer from primary to secondary schooling, a controversial subject, was included in the terms of reference of the Central Advisory Council for Education (England) which, under the chairmanship of Lady Plowden, considered primary education in all its aspects (and reported in 1967, see p. 7). Since the Education Act 1964, local education authorities and voluntary bodies in England and Wales have been allowed, subject to the approval of the Secretary of State for Education and Science, to organise new schools with ages of transfer other than 11.

Nursery Education

Children may enter nursery schools[1] from the age of two, or nursery classes attached to infant schools from the age of three. Because of the need to provide places for the increased population of compulsory school age, the provision of nursery education has been limited. A special expansion is taking place, however, in areas of social need as part of the government's response to the recommendations of the Plowden committee on educational priority areas (see p. 7), and also as part of the Urban Programme launched in 1968. During the first years of the programme the government is paying a 75 per cent grant on local authority expenditure amounting to some £60 million to £65 million to assist areas with particularly difficult social problems. So far over 15,000 more nursery school places have been approved. The government also authorises the provision of nursery classes when these enable qualified married women teachers with young children to return to service in maintained schools.

There are, in addition, many private nursery schools and a growing number of voluntary co-operative playgroups which are advised centrally by the Pre-School Playgroups Association.

The school day at the nursery school lasts from about 9 a.m. to 3 p.m., and it includes the opportunity for a rest after the midday meal. Half-day attendance is encouraged; this can be either in the morning or the afternoon, and is not limited to very young children. There are no formal lessons but, instead, indoor and outdoor play using a great variety of materials. Buildings and equipment are specially designed to meet the needs of small children.

Every nursery school has a qualified superintendent teacher, and in almost all cases assistant teachers are also qualified. Each nursery class or group is staffed by the equivalent of a full-time nursery assistant as well as a teacher. The recommended maximum number of children in a nursery class is 30 (ten fewer than in a primary school) while in a nursery school the recommended staffing ratio is one teacher and one nursery assistant for every 20 full-time pupils.

Infant and Junior Schools

Primary schools cater for pupils between the ages of 5 and 11 (or, if there is a nursery class, 3 and 11). Where the annual admissions amount to two or more classes the course is usually divided between separate infant (5–7 years) and junior (7–11 years) departments of the same primary school, or between

[1]For nurseries, as distinct from nursery schools, see COI reference pamphlet *Children in Britain*, R5236.

separate infant and junior schools. Infant and junior departments and schools may each have their own head teacher.

The primary stage is concerned with the general development of children, and the schools aim to relate their approach to the current needs of the children and to provide full scope for their individual development.

At infant schools, in order to widen the children's experience, opportunities are provided for experimenting with such materials as sand, water, clay, paint and wood; building with bricks and boxes; imaginative play; stories and music. These activities are linked, where suitable, with reading, writing, and simple arithmetic, the aim being to stimulate an interest in books as sources of information and pleasure, and in mathematical concepts, and to encourage fluency in oral and written expression.

The junior school, taking children from about 7 or 8, is, at its best, also characterised by an atmosphere in which experiment and inquiry beyond conventional subject bounds is encouraged.

Many new ideas in subject teaching are being introduced into the curriculum. In mathematics and science, the practical approach is emphasised so that children may acquire a clearer understanding of the concepts involved. A large-scale experiment is being carried out in the teaching of French, which had not until recently been generally taught in primary schools. Another experiment is being conducted in the use of a modified alphabet, known as the Initial Teaching Alphabet (i.t.a.) as an aid in learning to read. The i.t.a. was designed by Sir James Pitman and in its present form it consists of 44 characters; of these, 24 are taken from the traditional alphabet and 20 are new. The aim of the i.t.a. is to produce an alphabet closely approaching a one-to-one relationship between spoken sound and written symbol, while at the same time attempting to ensure that children have little difficulty in transferring from materials written in i.t.a. to those printed in the orthodox alphabet. Other prominent features of the junior school curriculum include physical education, drama and art.

SECONDARY EDUCATION

The maintained system of secondary education which developed from the 1944 Education Act was strongly influenced by the recommendation of the preceding White Paper that there should be three main types of secondary school, to be known as 'grammar', 'modern', and 'technical' schools.

Until the early sixties the great majority of secondary schools maintained by local education authorities were of these three types organised on a selective basis, entry to the different types generally depending on the results of tests taken at the age of about 11—the 'eleven-plus'. In January 1970 out of the 5,385 maintained secondary schools there were 1,038 grammar schools for children selected as suitable for an academic education orientated towards university entrance; 2,691 secondary modern schools, originally designed to give a general education with a practical bias, but many later widening their approach to include academic courses; and 82 secondary technical schools.

At the time of the 1944 Act there were a few local education authorities, including London, Bristol and Coventry, who were against the idea of

selective education and who, when building new schools, established them as comprehensive schools. These are non-selective and provide all types of education for all or most of the children in a district, from the least to the most intellectually able, and usually covering the full secondary age range of 11 to 18. By January 1970 there were 1,145 such schools co-existing with maintained selective schools except in Anglesey, Bradford, Merioneth, Montgomeryshire and the Isle of Man.

The comprehensive idea in various forms has increased in importance in recent years, encouraged during the second half of the 1960s by the government, which issued guidance on acceptable forms of comprehensive schooling.[1] In 1970, however, following the change of government, the Secretary of State gave new guidance[2] to local education authorities advising them that the decision about the type of secondary school organisation within their areas lay with them, to be taken in a way that met local circumstances most appropriately.

Several forms of comprehensive schooling are now in operation: the system of orthodox comprehensive schools with an age range of 11 to 18; 'two-tier' systems with all pupils transferring at 11 to junior comprehensive schools and at 13 or 14 to senior comprehensive schools; and comprehensive schools with an age range of 11 to 16, combined with sixth-form colleges for pupils over 16. Particularly since the publication of the Plowden Report (see p. 7), a number of authorities have planned or established middle schools spanning the primary and secondary age ranges: under this system pupils transfer from primary schools at the age of 8 or 9 to middle schools with an age range of 8 to 12, 9 to 13, or 10 to 14 and then to comprehensive schools with an age range of 12, 13 or 14 to 18. There are two other forms which are not fully comprehensive: two-tier systems in which all pupils transfer at 11 to junior comprehensive schools and at 13 or 14 some move to senior schools while others remain at junior schools, and two-tier systems in which all pupils go to junior comprehensive schools at 11 and then transfer at 13 or 14, but to a choice of senior schools offering courses of different types.

There are a number of other schools outside the categories of grammar, secondary modern, technical and comprehensive. In January 1970 there were 324 other secondary schools comprising bilateral or multilateral schools, (providing two or three types of secondary education, although in separately organised streams), and schools which could not be classified precisely.

Curricula in Maintained Secondary Schools

At the time of the 1944 Act it was intended that the different types of secondary school should offer completely different curricula. Most comprehensive schools, however, as the name suggests, aim to provide a complete range of courses from the least to the most academic and the tendency has been for secondary modern schools to broaden their range so that they may now differ considerably in the types of course they offer. Apart from reading, writing, arithmetic, history, geography, religious instruction, art, music,

[1] *Organisation of Secondary Education*, Department of Education and Science, Circular 10/65.

[2] *Organisation of Secondary Education*, Department of Education and Science, Circular 10/70.

cooking, needlework and physical education, some have provided courses with a vocational bias such as rural science, seamanship, shorthand and typing. An increasing number of others have developed academic courses leading to external examinations (although not in a very wide range of subjects).

As well as most of the above non-vocational subjects, grammar schools usually offer a choice of three or four modern languages, Latin and sometimes Greek, and a range of mathematics and science subjects. Some offer engineering, architecture, economics and commercial subjects.

There are many notable curricula developments, a large number of which are designed to deal with two questions: the effect of examination pressures on syllabuses; and courses for young school-leavers and those who will be staying on at school as a result of the raising of the school-leaving age. The Schools Council for Curriculum and Examinations (see p. 10) is co-ordinating investigations into, for example, sixth-form curricula and examinations and their relation to higher education, and English language teaching (at all levels of the educational system). The council has worked closely with the Nuffield Foundation which has sponsored the preparation of new and more wide-ranging courses leading to both levels of the General Certificate of Education as well as courses for secondary school children who will not be taking examinations.[1]

THE EDUCATION OF IMMIGRANT CHILDREN

Since the 1950s immigrants from the West Indies, India, Pakistan and other countries have settled in Britain, and it is the aim of the education service to help to ensure that their children develop and realise their full potential. In January 1970 there were some 263,710 immigrant children[2] in schools in England and Wales, over 40 per cent of whom were West Indians, and about 28 per cent Indian or Pakistani.

The most important task for the schools has been to help immigrant children to improve their knowledge of English, without which they are unable to take advantage of the full school curriculum or the full range of employment opportunities when they leave school. Local education authorities have used a variety of methods to teach English as a second language. In some areas special immigrant language centres have been set up where children from several schools are brought together for intensive language training, either full or part time. Some of these are equipped as 'language laboratories' with teaching machines and other appropriate audio/visual materials. In other areas children are withdrawn from their normal classes to receive special help in small groups. Another measure taken is the employment of a team of peripatetic language teachers who visit the schools where

[1]The Nuffield school curriculum projects include courses in science, junior mathematics, languages, classics, humanities and linguistics, and English. Course materials are made available to teachers including pupils' readers and work books, visual aids and (where appropriate) tape recordings or laboratory apparatus.

[2]For the purpose of educational statistics an immigrant pupil is defined as a child born overseas whose parents were also born abroad or one born in the United Kingdom to parents who have been in the country less than ten years.

immigrant pupils are in need of help and who are able to advise other teachers in the schools they visit.

A valuable contribution to the teaching of immigrant children has been made by the Schools Council for Curriculum and Examinations (see p. 10), which is financed jointly by central government and the local authorities. It established a curriculum development project at Leeds University in 1966 concerned with teaching English to non-English-speaking immigrants and another project at Birmingham University in 1967, concerned with the language development of West Indian children. Teaching materials developed during these research projects are now available in schools.

Reports from schools indicate that the efforts and initiative of teachers and others involved have been meeting with considerable success. The proportion of immigrant pupils unable to benefit fully from the school curriculum because of language inadequacies has fallen steadily; in January 1970 just over 16·5 per cent of immigrant pupils were considered still to be in need of special language tuition.

The progress achieved has been made possible by increasing the numbers of teachers involved with immigrant children and by helping them to develop their teaching skills. The initial training of teachers takes place in colleges of education (see p. 48) or university departments of education (see p. 49), where there has been a marked increase in the provision of courses concerned with the education of immigrant children including the teaching of English as a second language. The Department of Education and Science and local education authorities also increasingly provide short in-service training courses for teachers of immigrant pupils.

Since 1966 local authorities with a large immigrant school population have been encouraged by the government to increase the number of teachers in their schools. For the academic year 1971–72 the Department of Education and Science authorised the addition of over 3,400 teachers to the quotas of relevant authorities. The government also pays grants of 75 per cent on the salaries of teachers specially employed by local education authorities because of problems arising from the different languages and customs of immigrants in their areas.

The government's Urban Programme, which was launched in 1968 to assist areas of special social need, also provides funds from which immigrants benefit. Projects attracting 75 per cent grant include reception and language centres, summer projects and holiday language courses (some of which are sponsored by the Community Relations Commission, the statutory body set up to promote harmonious race relations) and—at the pre-school stage—provision of new places in nursery schools and playgroups.

DIRECT GRANT SCHOOLS

There are a small number of schools—the best known of which are the 176 grammar schools—which are not maintained by local education authorities but receive grants direct from the Department of Education and Science.[1]

[1]There are four direct grant grammar schools in Wales which receive grants from the Welsh Education Office.

These 'direct-grant' grammar schools are required to award free places to at least one-quarter of the pupils admitted to the schools, these free places being allocated, either directly by the governors or through the local education authority, to pupils who have attended maintained or grant-aided primary schools for at least two years. Further places are at the disposal of the local education authority for allocation to pupils who may or may not have attended maintained or grant-aided schools, but the authority's proportion of the admissions may not, unless the governors agree, exceed one-half the total. Parents pay the fees for the remaining places in the schools, the amount payable (in the case of day pupils) being in accordance with their income. The department, besides making substantial *per capita* grants to the schools, also refunds the cost of the fee remissions allowed to parents of day pupils. About 60 per cent of the pupils in direct-grant grammar schools have their fees paid by the local education authorities.

INDEPENDENT SCHOOLS

Independent schools receive no grants from public funds but all are open to inspection and all must register with the Department of Education and Science, which has the power to require them to remedy any objectionable features in their premises, accommodation or instruction and to exclude any person regarded as unsuitable to teach in, or to be the proprietor of, a school. In default, the department can, in effect, close any independent school which is not considered fit for registration, but schools have a right of appeal to an Independent Schools Tribunal against any of the department's requirements.

Those schools whose standards are regarded by the department as broadly comparable with those required of any similar grant-aided schools are, on application, granted the status of 'recognised as efficient'. Schools so recognised (1,409 of the 2,695 registered) contain about three-quarters of the pupils in independent schools.[1]

Independent schools cater for pupils of all ages and abilities; a high proportion, particularly among those recognised as efficient, provide a boarding education. Two well-known groups of schools which are included among the latter are the preparatory schools and the 'public' schools.[2] The preparatory schools cater mainly for boys from about 8 to 13 years of age who are intending to enter public schools, the largest and most important of the recognised efficient independent schools. Combined tuition and boarding fees in public schools generally range between £500 and £800 a year. There are some 270 public schools, about half of which are for girls. The boys' schools in particular include a high proportion of boarding schools and it is among these that some of the most famous schools are numbered.

[1] *List of Independent Schools in England and Wales recognised as efficient under Rule 16.* Department of Education and Science, List 70, 1970, is published by HMSO, price 85p.

[2] 'Public' schools are usually taken to mean those schools in membership of the Headmasters' Conference, the Governing Bodies' Association or the Governing Bodies of Girls' Schools Association. Some other schools, mainly direct-grant schools which are not independent, are also represented on these bodies.

SPECIAL EDUCATION

Special educational treatment is provided for children needing it for any handicap—physical or mental.

Local education authorities are required by the Education Act 1944 not only to provide special education for children needing it, but are also responsible for finding out which children in their areas need treatment. Parents may be required to have their children examined for this purpose at any time after the children are two years old. Parents may also ask the authority to examine children over this age.

A further responsibility—for the education of severely mentally handicapped children—was transferred to the Department of Education and Science, and in Wales to the Welsh Education Office, from the Department of Health and Social Security in April 1971.

The Advisory Committee on Handicapped Children advises the Secretary of State on matters relating to special educational treatment which he may submit to it or which it might consider necessary to investigate.

There are ten categories of handicapped pupils for whom local education authorities must provide special educational treatment: blind, partially sighted, deaf, partially hearing, delicate, educationally subnormal, epileptic, maladjusted, physically handicapped, and children suffering from speech defects.

As medical advances and changing patterns of disease and disability create new needs, local education authorities, in co-operation with hospitals and often with voluntary organisations, are developing new types of schools and units. For example, schools are being established for spastic and other very severely physically handicapped children for whom no specialised provision was previously made; so are highly specialised schools or units for small groups of children with complex educational and psychological problems: aphasic children (those with severe communication problems) and autistic children (those who are completely withdrawn). At the same time there has been some reorganisation of the schools for the blind and deaf with the object of making separate provision for the partially sighted and the partially hearing. The educationally subnormal ('the slow learners') are the largest group of handicapped children, and there has been a considerable increase in special school places for them in the last decade although a shortage still exists.

In many cases handicapped children can be given special educational treatment in ordinary schools—for example, if there are special boarding facilities or if attendance at a child guidance clinic (see p. 26) or remedial centre is possible—and children are not sent to special schools if they can be educated satisfactorily in ordinary schools. Children requiring more intensive specialised help may attend a special class attached to their school, sharing as far as they can in the work and activities of their contemporaries. But for many children—86,847 in 1970—attendance at ordinary schools is impossible and they have to attend special schools for the handicapped, either day or residential. The most severely handicapped, including those with a combination of disabilities, may be taught at home or in hospitals (schooling in hospital is also available for children who may be confined to hospital for a period of weeks only). There are 986 special schools, including 89 hospital

school. Attendance at special schools is compulsory up to the age of 16, and a number of schools retain children beyond this age, providing a period of further education and pre-vocational training for their pupils. (Subsequent vocational training is the responsibility of the Department of Employment.[1])

Most of the special schools—868 in 1970—are run by local education authorities. They include practically all the day schools, most of the hospital schools, and about two-thirds of the boarding schools. The remainder (including most of the boarding provision for the deaf and blind) are under voluntary management: they receive some grant aid from the Department of Education and Science but are maintained primarily from the fees charged to the local authorities for the pupils they send to the schools (the parents are not charged).

Much of the pioneering work in the provision of special schools has been done by voluntary organisations, some being national societies while others are small bodies set up for the specific purpose of running a special school. For example, the main societies providing children's homes—the Roman Catholic Church, the Church of England Children's Society, Dr. Barnardo's and the National Children's Home and Orphanage—include boarding special schools for handicapped children among their homes; the Shaftesbury Society has residential schools including two for very severely handicapped children. The contribution of the Royal National Institution for the Blind to the education of blind children includes six residential nurseries, two grammar schools (one for boys and one for girls) and two schools for children with handicaps additional to blindness. The Royal National Institute for the Deaf provides a school for maladjusted deaf children. The Spastics Society, also, has been a pioneer in special educational development. It provides six schools for spastic pupils, including the Meldrith Manor School opened near Cambridge in 1966 for spastic pupils with severe mental and physical handicaps and believed to be the first of its kind in the world, and the Thomas Delarue School in Tonbridge, the first grammar school in Britain for spastics of normal intelligence. The society also has two further education centres. Other special schools under independent voluntary management include the Society School for Autistic Children, opened in London in 1965 by the National Society for Autistic Children, and four boarding special schools maintained by the Invalid Children's Aid Association: two for boys with chronic asthma (one junior, one senior) and two for young children with communication difficulties arising from emotional or physical causes.

SCHOOL-LEAVING: EXAMINATIONS AND CAREERS GUIDANCE

The minimum school-leaving age for all but children at special schools is, at present, 15; it will be raised to 16 in 1972–73.[2] The school-leaving age at

[1]See COI reference pamphlet *Rehabilitation and Care of the Disabled in Britain*, R4972.

[2]Under the Education Act 1962 school-leaving dates were reduced to two: the end of the Easter and summer terms. Pupils reaching the age of 15 between September and January must stay at school at least until Easter, those with birthdays between February and August, until the end of the summer term.

special schools for handicapped children has been 16 since the 1944 Act. The number of pupils staying beyond the minimum leaving age has been steadily increasing, as has the number of pupils who stay until the end of the secondary school course and go into full-time further education.

In 1960 some 21·6 per cent of the 16-year-old age group were still in school; in 1970 the equivalent figure was 35·5 per cent.

Secondary School Examinations

Although there is no national leaving examination, secondary school pupils (and others) may take the General Certificate of Education (GCE) or the Certificate of Secondary Education (CSE).

The GCE examinations are conducted by eight independent examining bodies,[1] most of which are connected with universities.

These examinations are set at two levels, Ordinary ('O') and Advanced ('A'). The O-level papers are usually taken at the end of a five-year course in a secondary school. A-level papers are usually taken after a further two years' study in the sixth form (the highest class in secondary education). The A-level results are used to assess candidates by most universities other than Oxford and Cambridge, whose colleges set their own entrance papers.

There are no compulsory subjects at either level and candidates may take as many or as few subjects and as many times as they wish. They do not need to take the same subject at both O- and A-levels. A candidate who fails to gain a pass at A-level may be awarded an O-level pass on his A-level papers.

At A-level passes are awarded in five grades: A, B, C, D and E. In addition A-level candidates may take Special ('S') papers which are normally set on the same syllabus as the basic A-level papers but contain questions of a more searching kind. Only candidates whose basic A-level papers are graded A, B or C are eligible to have their work on S-papers taken into account. These candidates may be given a supplementary grading of 'distinction' or 'merit' based on their performance on S-papers. Candidates are not normally expected to take S-papers in more than one subject and are not allowed to take them in more than two.

The examinations are open to any suitable candidates whether they are attending school or not.

The normal minimum age of entry is 16 although candidates may be entered earlier if their headmaster or headmistress certifies that this is educationally desirable and that they are likely to be successful. There is no upper age limit.

There are some 175 subjects to choose from at O-level and about 120 at A-level. Besides the normal academic subjects they include art, music, handicrafts, domestic, technical and commercial subjects.

During the 1950s a demand grew up for examinations at a lower level of ability than that required for the GCE O-level, and this led to an undesirable proliferation of widely varying unrecognised examinations. Consequently in 1965 the Certificate of Secondary Education (CSE) was introduced. The character of the examination is based on the report of a working party of

[1]Some of the examining bodies conduct GCE (or School Certificate) examinations overseas and separate conditions apply to overseas candidates.

the Secondary School Examinations Council under the chairmanship of Mr. Robert Beloe.[1] The original recommendations of the Beloe committee were based on the belief that any new examination of national standing should be controlled by the participating schools and should reflect the work of the schools without imposing a pattern on the curriculum and syllabus. Therefore the CSE, which like the GCE is on a single subject basis, can be examined in a number of ways but is in all cases controlled by serving teachers, represented on the 14 regional examining boards. Schools may prepare their own syllabuses and conduct their own examinations subject only to moderation by the regional board to ensure comparable standards; or they may conduct their own syllabuses (subject to the board's approval) but have the examination papers marked by the board; or they may use syllabuses prepared by the board's subject panels, which are mainly or entirely composed of teachers, and take the board's examination. Work done by candidates during their final school year may be taken into account.

The CSE is open to pupils of any school who have completed, or are about to complete, five years of secondary education. It is marked in five grades, apart from the lowest performances which are ungraded. The top grade corresponds to a GCE O-level pass.

General oversight of examinations is exercised by the Schools Council (see p. 10), which acts on behalf of the Secretary of State and has a co-ordinating and advisory role in relation to the work of the GCE and CSE examining bodies. In particular, it is concerned with maintaining comparability of standards between boards and—since Grade 1 of the CSE implies a standard of work equivalent to at least a GCE pass at O-level—between the two forms of examinations. It also may advise or make recommendations on the admission of candidates, the presentation of statistics and constitutional arrangements. It does not lay down model syllabuses or examination papers, but it does provide a clearing house for ideas and sponsorship for research and development. It has published a series of examination bulletins, most of them related to developing the work of the CSE.

Careers Guidance

Responsibility for careers guidance is shared between the schools, many of which allocate one or more teachers part time to this function, and the Youth Employment Officers, working in collaboration with them. Youth Employment Officers are appointed by local education authorities in some areas and by the Department of Employment in others.

The Youth Employment Officers keep in touch with schools and places of employment and co-operate with parents, teachers and others concerned in the transition from school to work. They also co-operate with disablement resettlement officers of the Department of Employment to give special guidance and help to handicapped young people. In the schools the officers meet the school-leavers in the second term of their final year and give them a general talk on possible forms of employment. They may arrange for further talks on different subjects to be given by specialists, and help schools to arrange for parties of pupils to visit local industries. In the pupil's final

[1] *Secondary School Examinations other than the GCE.* HMSO, 1961, 22½p.

term the Youth Employment Officers interview each school-leaver to advise on the choice of employment which as nearly as possible matches his or her abilities. This vocational guidance includes advice on training facilities, including apprenticeships and training schemes.

HEALTH AND WELFARE SERVICES

Local education authorities have various duties and powers under the Education Acts in connection with the health and welfare of schoolchildren.

The School Health Service

Medical examinations and dental inspections are provided free by the local education authorities through the School Health Service for children attending publicly maintained schools. It is normally through the School Health Service that local education authorities discover and examine children who are so handicapped as to need special education (see p. 22). Every child is examined on entering school and then periodically, or when there is felt to be a need, according to local practice. There is a growing trend towards selective examinations. Parents are encouraged to be present at inspections. In general school clinics deal with minor ailments, and treatment requiring specialist services is arranged through the National Health Service but some specialist clinics are provided by a number of local education authorities. The School Dental Service is a treatment service. About 4·5 million schoolchildren were inspected under the School Dental Service in England and Wales in 1969, and over 1·3 million were treated.

The School Health Service is in no way intended as a substitute for the National Health Service, and parents of schoolchildren are free to avail themselves, on behalf of their children, of all National Health Service facilities.[1] At the same time, the State recognises—and has recognised since the passing of the Educational (Administrative Provisions) Act 1907—that special medical care, both preventive and curative, is essential to the welfare of growing children, and that a School Health Service is a good means of providing it. Therefore, although the School Health Service has been closely co-ordinated with the National Health Service in England and Wales, it continues at present as a separate entity, under the responsibility of the Department of Education and Science but organised by the local education authorities.

Child Guidance Clinics

Child guidance centres or clinics for the treatment of children with emotional or behaviour problems are provided by local education authorities, by National Health hospitals and in some cases by voluntary organisations.

Child guidance centres and clinics are normally staffed by a team of educational psychologists and psychiatric social workers under the clinical direction of a psychiatrist, who is responsible for psychiatric treatment.

The educational psychologist is concerned with the investigation of children with emotional or psychological disturbances and can give help by

[1]For further details of the National Health Service see COI reference pamphlet *Health Services in Britain*, R5154.

educational means, for example, by remedial teaching. He is often employed also part time in the School Psychological Service, and can thus provide the essential link between the schools and the clinic. In this capacity he may be called upon to give advice on learning difficulties and the attendant emotional problems, and to give talks and advice to parents and teachers on the management of children and their behaviour problems. The psychiatric social worker is concerned with the home and family of the child who is being treated. She not only explains what the clinic is trying to do, but where necessary carries out casework with, and gives support to, the family. This may continue if and while a child is at a boarding school.

School Welfare Officers

Local education authorities usually employ a school welfare superintendent. He acts as leader of a team of local education welfare officers or school attendance officers, who divide the area between them, each officer having a thorough knowledge of the district and being well known in it. One of their main duties is to enforce the law of compulsory school attendance.

Children's Care Committees

A unique system of child-care has developed in London where the Inner London Education Authority (see p. 11) employs trained social workers as organisers of voluntary care committees. These consist of voluntary workers and are attached to both primary and secondary schools, or groups of such schools. The committees are appointed to deal with all matters which affect the welfare of the child outside the school curriculum. Their duties include advising parents about medical treatment recommended by the school doctor and seeing that it is carried out, informing the school doctor about the backgrounds of poor children, visiting pupils' homes in connection with school welfare services, and making recommendations for boarding education. Care committees do much to help neglected and maladjusted children.

Recreational Facilities

Physical education, including organised games, is part of the curriculum of all schools, and local education authorities are required to have playgrounds and, except for infant schools, playing-fields of an area proportionate to the numbers of their pupils. Most secondary schools have a gymnasium. Organised games played in schools and colleges include football, hockey, lacrosse, netball, tennis and cricket. Some schools provide facilities for boxing, athletics, fencing and swimming.

School Meals and Milk

Local education authorities have a duty to provide meals for pupils at maintained schools, and in September 1970 an estimated 68 per cent of children in these schools took school dinners.

Each local education authority has an organiser of school meals, usually a woman, who may hold qualifications in dietetics and catering, have experience in the preparation and service of meals on a large scale and knowledge of education in its broadest sense.

School dinners are required to be adequate, in quantity and quality, to

serve as the child's main meal of the day. The present charge made is 12p a meal, but authorities are permitted to charge less for pupils attending special schools and to remit the full charges for children in need. The balance of cost, the cost of free meals for necessitous children and the cost of premises and equipment are met by the central government.

On days when schools are open milk is provided free of charge to children aged 7 or under in maintained schools, and to all pupils in special schools. Pupils aged 7 to 12[1] who have a medical requirement also receive free milk. The quantity of milk provided is one-third of a pint per child per day but delicate children receive two-thirds of a pint. The provision of meals, milk, premises and equipment is financed partly by the central government and partly by local government.

Transport

Free transport must be provided for children attending publicly maintained or assisted schools who live more than a reasonable walking distance from their schools. This distance is defined as two miles for children under eight years and three miles for older children. Authorities may either provide vehicles themselves or, where convenient, use the public transport system and pay the children's fares.

Clothing

Education authorities have the power to make grants towards the cost of distinctive school clothing for children attending maintained and non-maintained schools to enable them to take advantage without hardship to themselves or their parents of any educational facilities available to them. Authorities also have power actually to provide clothing if children cannot take full advantage of their education because of unsuitable or inadequate clothing, and to recover from parents what contribution they can afford towards the cost.

FEES

No tuition fees are charged to parents of children attending schools, including special schools, maintained wholly or partly by local education authorities, and books and equipment are supplied free. A small number of maintained schools have boarding facilities for which fees are charged and, under the 1944 Act, local education authorities may help parents with the fees to the extent needed to prevent hardship. Each authority decides the exact extent of its help according to its own income scale, which must have the Secretary of State's approval.

At direct grant schools (see p. 20) some pupils may be admitted to free places, their fees being paid by the local education authorities.

Local education authorities also pay for some free and assisted places in independent schools which normally charge fees.

[1]Under the Education (Milk) Act 1971, free milk is available to these pupils at primary and middle schools on medical grounds, but not at secondary schools where there is no administrative arrangement for providing free milk since its withdrawal in 1968. The Act also empowers local education authorities to sell milk in schools.

FURTHER EDUCATION SYSTEM

'FURTHER EDUCATION' is a broad term which covers all education beyond the secondary stage; it may be full time or part time, vocational or non-vocational. Within this general definition there exists the system of 'higher education' (see p. 41). Local education authorities are responsible, under the Education Act 1944, for providing full-time and part-time courses of further education with the aim of enabling people to start courses at various stages and to attain the highest qualifications to which their abilities entitle them and also for providing, through the adult education system and the youth service, facilities for leisure-time education for recreational ends. Further education is also provided at a few direct-grant institutions, including the national colleges and the agricultural colleges, and at a number of independent colleges (see statistics p. 85). Voluntary associations play an important part in the provision of non-vocational further education.

COLLEGES OF FURTHER EDUCATION

The pattern of provision of craft, technical, technological and other further education has changed considerably in recent years. The four-part structure (local, area and regional colleges and Colleges of Advanced Technology) established by the White Paper of 1956 (*Technical Education*, Cmd. 9703, HMSO, 12½p) no longer exists. Of the two parts of the structure which concentrated on providing advanced courses, the Colleges of Advanced Technology were elevated to university status in 1965, while the regional colleges have been superseded by the establishment of polytechnics following proposals in the White Paper of 1966 (*A Plan for Polytechnics and Other Colleges*, Cmnd. 3006, HMSO, 9p) for the development of a distinctive sector of higher education within the further education system to complement the universities and colleges of education (see p. 46).

There are some 650 further education institutions maintained or assisted by local education authorities, commonly described as major establishments of further education. These include the 28 new polytechnics.

The polytechnics concentrate on advanced work, and offer courses on a full-time, part-time and sandwich basis. Of the other colleges about 20 run one or more full-time degree courses and about 70 provide one or more Higher National Diploma full-time or sandwich courses. Some of the remaining colleges have varying amounts of work at the higher education level, mostly part-time day or evening courses. Many of them, however, are concerned essentially with non-advanced courses for students in the 16–19 age bracket and about 60 colleges have no full-time or sandwich students, all their daytime work being on a part-time basis.

Qualifications

Technician Courses

For operatives, apprentices and intending craftsmen there are part-time courses of up to five years leading to the examinations of the City and Guilds of London Institute (CGLI) and the Regional Examining Unions; the most

popular subjects are engineering in various forms, building and commercial subjects. In addition, encouraged by some of the industrial training boards, technical colleges have played a part in providing students with the industrial training as well as the further education associated with this training. A substantial number of full-time integrated courses combining education and industrial training for first-year apprentices have been developed.

Entry to technician courses may be direct from school with qualifications at the O-level of the GCE (see p. 24) or after a one- or two-year part-time general course designed to assess the particular abilities and aptitudes of students without such qualifications. Technician courses provided by the CGLI are largely practical in content and are designed to match closely the industrial requirements of the student. They operate on a part-time or 'block-release' basis[1] and in some trades can be taken directly after craft courses. National Certificate (part-time) and National Diploma (full-time and sandwich) courses are more academic in content than the majority of technician courses and cover a wider range of technical subjects (and business studies). The courses, which are at two levels, Ordinary and Higher, are approved by joint committees consisting of representatives of the Department of Education and Science and the appropriate professional bodies (for example, the Institution of Mechanical Engineers) and of teachers' organisations.

The Ordinary National Diplomas and Certificates (OND and ONC) are roughly comparable in standard to the A-level of the GCE (see p. 24) and are acceptable to some universities as alternative entry qualifications. Of the two, however, the OND provides a greater depth of coverage. As a two-year full-time or 'sandwich' course[2] it involves more study time and the sandwich element also provides valuable industrial experience. The ONC, on the other hand, is a two-year course taken on the basis of part-time day or evening study and block release. The Higher National Certificate and Diploma (HNC and HND) are higher education qualifications.[3] (see p. 46).

Commercial Courses

Young entrants to clerical posts without GCE Ordinary-level qualifications may take a two-year part-time course leading to the Certificate in Office Studies. Certain students are allowed to complete the course in one year by either full-time or part-time study. They can follow these courses with a two-year part-time course leading to the Higher Certificate in Office Studies. Ordinary National Certificates and Ordinary National Diplomas in Business Studies, similar in standard to the technical ONCs and ONDs, are also available. (For advanced courses in business studies, see p. 47.) There are also a large number of full-time and part-time commercial, secretarial and modern-language courses of all kinds leading to certificates awarded by recognised examining bodies.

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[1]Students on 'block release' courses are released by their employer for periods of several weeks' study at colleges.

[2]Students on full-time sandwich courses spend alternate periods in college and in industry.

[3]The government has accepted in principle the recommendations of the Hazlegrave Committee (*Report of the Committee on Technician Courses and Examinations*, HMSO, 1969) and has agreed to the establishment of a Technician Education Council (TEC) and a Business Education Council (BEC) to plan and co-ordinate courses and examinations.

Art and Design Courses
The lower level art courses leading to City and Guilds qualifications or college diplomas are largely vocational. Courses known as foundation studies are designed to develop the students' interest and skill in art and design and serve as a preparation for entry to courses leading to the Diploma in Art and Design and also to advanced vocational courses.

Students
In 1969–70, there were the following numbers of students in colleges of further education on non-advanced courses leading to recognised qualifications as described in this chapter: 142,584 full time, 5,456 sandwich, 554,145 part-time day and 268,650 evening (see Appendix 1 for details of all further education students). Many of the part-time students are engaged on 'day release' (released by the employers for study one day a week), or 'block release' study which may be supplemented by attendance at evening classes. (Figures for students following advanced courses are given on p. 48.)

Fees
Since most of the technical colleges and other further education establishments are either maintained or aided from public funds, tuition fees are moderate and often remitted for young people under 18 years of age. Many full-time students are helped by awards from local education authorities which are generally based on the results of the General Certificate of Education or a corresponding examination: they are assessed to cover tuition fees and a maintenance grant, but parents who can afford to contribute towards the cost are required to do so. There are also some scholarships available from endowments, and others awarded under schemes organised by particular industries or companies for the most promising of their young workers.

ADULT EDUCATION

Adult education in Britain is still generally taken to mean non-vocational courses for people over 18, although the distinction between 'vocational' and 'non-vocational' is being increasingly blurred as the rapidity of technological change compels more adults to undergo re-training. Such courses are provided—either separately or in conjunction—by local education authorities, various voluntary bodies (of which the Workers' Educational Association is the most notable), certain residential colleges and the adult education (extra-mural) departments of universities. In the widest context of education for adults can be included training and 'refresher' courses, most of which are provided by universities, technical colleges and colleges of education (see p. 41), courses run by the armed forces and merchant navy, and the increasing number of educational programmes on radio and television (see p. 55). Since February 1969 an independent committee of inquiry under the chairmanship of Sir Lionel Russell has been examining the adequacy and effectiveness of the existing adult education system.

A major share in the provision of adult education is increasingly being assumed by the local education authorities. Besides administering a large sector themselves, they have an implied duty to aid other providing bodies. They

still make most of their direct provision through evening institutes, now sometimes known as 'adult centres', day school premises being used for this purpose; increasing efforts are being made to adapt schools for adult use and to provide specialised accommodation. Some centres and institutes have full-time principals, but most of them are directed by teachers employed in school work during the day. Many lecturers are day teachers but others are now being recruited for part-time service from industry and other occupations. Nearly all courses are non-vocational, ranging from such practical subjects as cookery and infant care to a wide variety of cultural subjects, including languages, drama and music. The local education authorities also provide non-vocational day and evening courses in technical colleges, colleges of art, literary institutes, youth clubs (see p. 35) and other further education institutes.

The local education authorities also maintain or assist 30 colleges of adult education which offer short residential courses of great variety. The majority of students attend courses which last four days or less, many of them at weekends. Most of the courses are practical, but there are widespread opportunities for academic study. Their increasing popularity has been one of the most distinctive features of adult education since the 1950s.

The Village Colleges, pioneered in Cambridgeshire and variously adapted in Cumberland, Derbyshire, Devon, Monmouthshire, Leicestershire and Peterborough, are a local education authority development mainly in rural areas. The colleges are secondary schools for children planned as cultural community centres, providing educational, social and cultural centres for adults in the areas served. Community centres in general have a more social character and are usually managed by voluntary community associations, many of which are affiliated to the National Federation of Community Associations. However, they often provide non-vocational and further education facilities for young people and adults, and they often obtain aid from the local education authorities and capital grants from the Department of Education and Science.

Voluntary organisations were the pioneers of adult education and one of them, the Workers' Educational Association (WEA), together with the adult education and extra-mural departments of universities, still provides many of the higher-level academic adult education courses. These are the principal bodies recognised and grant-aided by the Department of Education and Science as 'responsible bodies'[1] for the provision of liberal adult education. They are grant-aided at a rate normally not exceeding 75 per cent of teaching costs. Varying assistance is also given by the local education authorities. Student fees are comparatively small although they have increased in recent years. The most common charge for a course of 24 two-hour meetings is about £2–£3.

The WEA has a small headquarters staff, 17 district secretaries, some full-time organising tutors and a large number of part-time tutors. Staff of the 23 university extra-mural departments are both full time and part time;

[1]'Responsible bodies' also include the Welsh National Council of Young Men's Christian Associations.

the part-time staff include internal university teachers. The WEA is the principal organising body for publicly recruited three-year 'tutorial' and one-year 'sessional' classes requiring intensive student effort and written work for which the extra-mural departments provide the teaching. In addition it recruits its own teachers for terminal classes (10 to 12 meetings) and short terminal classes (6 meetings) of a less intensive character. Traditionally these are evening classes, but many are now held in the daytime. In 1969–70 the WEA had more than 1,000 branches, and organised 8,287 courses attended by over 161,000 students.

An older tradition of university extension lectures has been the basis for the most significant development in university adult education since the 1950s: the growing number of courses, many but not all of shorter duration, which are organised for, or in association with, special interests including vocational groups.

Adult education is also promoted by a number of voluntary organisations which are entirely unsupported from public funds and by some organisations which receive Department of Education grants towards administrative, but not teaching, expenses, and are therefore not defined as responsible bodies; they may also be supported by local education authorities. These latter organisations include the National Federation of Women's Institutes and the National Union of Townswomen's Guilds.

Five colleges provide long residential courses in liberal studies, generally for one or two years, with the aid of grants from the Department of Education and Science. These colleges receive aid towards their running costs, varying according to the needs and resources of each college, and they are also receiving capital grants for up to 50 per cent of the cost of current expansion and improvement. These are Plater College (formerly called the Catholic Workers' College), Ruskin College, Fircroft College, Hillcroft College and Coleg Harlech. The colleges vary in character, although all aim at providing a liberal education and do not apply academic entry tests. The courses often lead to the award of a university diploma.

Adult education is often thought of as an opportunity to make good deficiencies in childhood education. However, as a recent survey[1] by the National Institute of Adult Education (see below), pointed out, in all spheres of adult education except the long-term residential colleges, the majority of students have continued their schooling beyond the statutory minimum leaving age and the higher occupational groups are over-represented.

The National Institute of Adult Education provides in London a centre of information, research and publication for adult education, as well as a channel of co-operation and consultation for the many organisations in England and Wales which are interested in the subject.

Students

In 1968–69 students were registered in the following numbers: 1,394,742 at evening institutes; 247,309 for courses run by responsible bodies; 60,733 at residential colleges and centres of adult education maintained or assisted by local education authorities; and 425 at direct grant colleges.

[1] *Provision for Adult Education*, 1970, £2·10.

YOUTH SERVICE

Young people participate in most of the recreational and social activities provided for the community as a whole: sporting activities, for example, are an area where young people are particularly involved. Political and arts activities also receive strong youth support, which is catered for by such organisations as the youth wings of the political parties and youth theatres and orchestras. To ensure that facilities in the general community are adequate for young people, the government gives assistance to local education authorities and voluntary organisations who co-operate in what is known as the Youth Service. The aim of the Youth Service is to encourage the development of young people by helping them to broaden their interests, to enjoy recreational pursuits and to mix socially in their leisure time. The provision of premises and promotion of youth activities on a local basis is undertaken by the authorities and voluntary organisations, operating in partnership with the Department of Education and Science. Membership of youth groups is voluntary and groups vary greatly in their activities, there being no attempt to impose uniformity or to create anything in the nature of a national youth movement.

Origins

Organised activities for young people were first promoted by voluntary bodies, often of a religious nature, during the nineteenth century, and the number of such organisations and the range of their activities have continued to grow over the past hundred years. State interest in the provision of youth activities dates originally from 1918, but during the 1920s and 1930s the promotion of youth activities remained the responsibility of voluntary organisations. It was not until 1939 that the status of the Youth Service as an essential part of the education system was recognised—a status confirmed by subsequent education Acts. In the post-war years, the government and local education authorities have come to play an increasingly important part in the Youth Service.

Organisation and Finance

Government responsibility for the Youth Service is borne by the Department of Education and Science. The Secretary of State makes known the government's attitude towards the development of the service by means of circulars to local education authorities and through contact between departmental officials and representatives of the authorities and the voluntary organisations. During the 1960s he was advised on the implementation of a ten-year development programme by the Youth Service Development Council, which established inquiries into various aspects of the service. One of these[1] led to the establishment with government assistance of the Young Volunteer Force Foundation, an independent body which advises local authorities and other organisations on methods of involving young people in voluntary service to the community (see p. 38). In 1971 the council was wound up; the report of its last inquiry, *Youth and Community Work in the 70s*, outlined major proposals for the development of the service which are summarised on pp. 38–9.

[1] *Service by Youth*, HMSO, 1966, 9p.

Through the Department of Education and Science, the government makes financial contributions towards the capital building costs, and some central administrative expenses of the voluntary organisations: £1,004,000 for capital building costs and £378,000 for central administrative expenses in 1970–71.[1] Until April 1971 the department was responsible for recommending loan sanction for each local education authority project included in the Youth Service building programme but such individual approval is now no longer required (as part of the government's policy of giving increased freedom to local authorities). The total Youth Service building programme approved by the department in 1970–71 amounted to £5 million, of which about a third related to building projects undertaken by voluntary organisations.

Local education authorities have become increasingly active in the youth field in recent years. Many have appointed youth committees, on which official and voluntary bodies are represented, and most now employ full-time youth organisers to help in the promotion and encouragement of youth work. More and more authorities now build and run youth clubs themselves, thus complementing the local facilities provided by voluntary organisations. There are well over 2,000 youth centres fully maintained by the authorities. They also co-operate with the branches of the voluntary organisations in their areas, and most give financial help[2] and lend premises and equipment. In 1970—71 total local education authority contributions to the Youth Service in England and Wales (including capital building costs) amounted to £14·1 million; their contributions to running costs are made out of general revenue, while the finance for capital projects is raised by loan.

Despite the assistance which they receive from local education authorities, voluntary organisations still raise most of the day-to-day running expenses of their clubs by their own efforts. They also provide at least 25 per cent of the cost of their own capital building projects, with the help of contributions from charitable organisations such as the King George's Jubilee Trust (see p. 37), which has spent over £2 million in supporting youth welfare since its foundation in 1935.

The Training of Youth Workers

There are some 1,920 full-time youth workers operating in England and Wales, and many more part-time workers, usually unpaid. A new basic two-year training scheme for youth workers and community centre wardens came into operation in 1970. Courses are offered at colleges of education and further education. In maintained colleges tuition fees are shared by local education authorities throughout the country, and in voluntary colleges they are met from funds[3] provided by the Department of Education and Science. Grants to cover the living expenses of students who attend the courses are made by the local education authorities in the areas where they live. A number of

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[1]The department also contributed £33,000 in experimental grants to independent bodies.

[2]Local education authorities gave financial assistance to over 16,000 voluntary youth groups in 1967–68.

[3]For description of 'maintained' and 'voluntary' colleges, see p. 48.

colleges of education also provide youth work options as part of a general teacher-training course.

Groups within the Youth Service

Local education authority youth groups cater normally for young people of both sexes who are mainly in the 14–20 age range. Voluntary organisations also cater for young people on a single-sex basis and their membership often covers a wider age range: the junior groups of the Scout and Girl Guides Associations, for example, accept members from 7 and 8 years old respectively.

Of young people between the ages of 14 and 20 an estimated 29 per cent participate in Youth Service activities, and of these three times as many belong to voluntary as to local education authority youth groups. A smaller proportion of girls than of boys take part and they generally lose interest more quickly. The main involvement for young people as a whole is between the ages of 13 and 16.

Youth groups, whether run by local education authorities or by voluntary organisations, are normally centred round a club, although there are certain voluntary groups—often uniformed—which are not, usually because they have wider affiliations. While youth activities within the service reflect the broad general intentions of the sponsoring body, their nature is to a large extent determined by the local youth leader and the accommodation occupied by the club.

Local Education Authority Groups

Local education authority youth groups vary greatly in the quality of accommodation which they enjoy. Some authorities have constructed purpose-built youth centres, but, more frequently, clubs make use of premises built for other purposes, such as schools, community centres and local halls. Youth groups which meet in modern schools sometimes have the benefit of first-class handicraft rooms, proper stage equipment and cine-projectors, and can offer their members facilities for hobbies and for recreation as well as a varied educational programme. Almost all authorities provide facilities for sporting activities by club members and some have organised youth theatres, orchestras and choirs. Most have generally come to recognise the importance of meeting the social and recreational, as well as the formally educational, needs of young people. As a result some provide coffee bars and other meeting places for young people who are unwilling to be committed to formal activity.

Voluntary Groups

The voluntary organisations differ widely in character since nearly all of them were formed to serve a specific group of young people, but most of them provide educational and religious, as well as social and recreational, activities and try to inculcate in their members high ideals of personal conduct. Many of the older organisations with religious origins are committed to a particular denomination; others have units which must be attached to a church, whatever its denomination; and others, without definite affiliation, lay stress on the importance of spiritual values in the formation of character.

Certain youth groups are distinctive in that they exist primarily for a practical purpose: the Junior Red Cross and the St. John Ambulance Brigade, for example, give training in first aid, home nursing and hygiene, while the Pony Club teaches all branches of horsemanship. Other groups, though less specialised, place emphasis in their activities on particular aspects of life: the Youth Hostels Association, through its network of hostels, encourages knowledge, love and care of the countryside, and the National Federation of Young Farmers Clubs instructs its members in life and work in the country.

Some youth groups, such as those affiliated to the National Association of Youth Clubs, have broad general objectives and offer a framework of activities as varied as their aims and resources allow. Outdoor activities and camping are often an important part of their summer programme, while in winter members may take part in study groups, amateur dramatics, handicrafts, music, dancing, and indoor and outdoor sporting activities. In an attempt to meet the needs of the uncommitted young, some voluntary organisations, like local education authorities, run coffee bars where young people can drop in without having to register as members.

There are also four pre-service organisations for boys, all of which have connections with, and receive financial assistance from, the Ministry of Defence. Apart from providing pre-service training, they include among their objectives the promotion of social and educational welfare among cadets, the development of character and the provision of sporting activities.

Most of the voluntary organisations are members or associates of the Standing Conference of National Voluntary Youth Organisations (SCNVYO), which represents a combined membership of over 5 million young people under 21 (about 2 million over the age of 14). SCNVYO is a consultative body which meets to discuss matters of interest to its members, gives advice to statutory and other bodies interested in young people, and provides an information service on youth matters.

Other Organisations Concerned with Youth

There are in Britain a number of organisations, which, although primarily concerned with the welfare and out-of-school pursuits of young people, operate in a context broader than that of any individual youth movement. Among the most important are the Central Council of Physical Recreation, which provides practical and advisory services for many youth organisations; the National Playing Fields Association, which advises local authorities and sports organisations on the acquisition, layout, construction and use of sports grounds; and the Outward Bound Trust, which maintains six sea and mountain schools in Britain offering physical training and character-building courses for young people.

The Duke of Edinburgh's Award Scheme, which operates through bodies such as local authorities, schools, youth organisations and industrial firms, is designed as a challenge to young people to reach certain standards of achievement in leisure-time activities. Some 150,000 young people between the ages of 14 and 21 were taking part in the scheme in 1970; activities tested include service, pursuits and interests, [redacted] physical activities and design for living.

The King George's Jubilee Trust is a charitable organisation which

receives support from the Royal Family and other private sources, and which makes grants to the voluntary organisations and towards experimental youth projects.

Community Service by Young People

A notable trend in recent years (both within and outside the Youth Service) has been the growth in voluntary service by young people to those in need in the community, such as the elderly, the sick, the mentally ill and the handicapped. Organisations such as International Voluntary Service, Task Force and Community Service Volunteers receive grants from the Department of Education and Science, and through them thousands of young people are doing full- or part-time voluntary work for the community. Local Councils of Social Service encourage the formation of Youth Action Groups to help people in need and have organised about 20 offices for distributing volunteers. Many schools have organised for some years community service activities on an extra-mural basis but some now also run these activities as part of the curriculum. Some schoolchildren organise their own community service groups. Young people also play an active part in fund-raising for charitable organisations such as Shelter, which helps to provide accommodation for the homeless, and Oxfam, which assists development in the poorer countries of the world.

In order to increase the opportunities for young people to provide service to the community, the government established the Young Volunteer Force Foundation as an independent body in 1968, to promote the full involvement of young people in all aspects of the life of their local community. The foundation, which received a grant of £55,000 from the Department of Education and Science in 1970–71, employs a team of 40 young people who are available on request to assist organisations such as local authorities, voluntary associations and hospital boards in encouraging and organising voluntary service.

Developments in the Youth Service

During the 1960s the development of the youth service was strongly influenced by proposals put forward by the Albemarle committee in its report *The Youth Service in England and Wales* (Cmnd. 929, HMSO, 1960, 30p). Among the committee's major recommendations were an increase in the number of professional youth leaders, an expansion in the youth service building programme and increased expenditure by central and local government on the service. All of these proposals have since been implemented.

In 1969 the Youth Service Development Council, established in 1960 to advise on the implementation of the Albemarle committee's proposals, published a major report outlining proposals for changes in the role and objectives of the service during the 1970s (*Youth and Community Work in the 70s*, HMSO, 1969, 75p). The report regards the primary goal of youth work as the social education of young people, an education which would encourage them to participate in the life of the community. It warns of the dangers of isolationism within a club-based youth service, and recommends a new approach, to 'meet the needs of young people by making contact with them

wherever they are to be found, and recognise them as part of the community'. Among its specific proposals it suggests that the 14–20 age limits should disappear, that local education authorities should be encouraged to construct schools and college buildings capable of use by the community at large, and that special priority should be given to providing facilities for young people who have left school and whose social environment is inadequate.

After considering the report the Secretary of State for Education and Science announced in March 1971 the government's view that the youth service should continue on its present general basis but with certain changes of emphasis. The government accepted that the 14–20 age limits for the service should be interpreted with reasonable latitude, and that the needs of young school-leavers in deprived areas should be given special attention. It would encourage close liaison between voluntary bodies and local authorities and further joint use of premises by them. The system of government capital and recurrent grants needed to be simplified, and the balance of the programmes would in future be shaped towards the provision of assistance to less prosperous areas. More funds would be released to give greater assistance to experimental work in the youth field. Pending completion of a review, the recurrent grants to the headquarters of voluntary organisations would be maintained at their present level.

INDEPENDENT FURTHER EDUCATION

A great number of further education courses are run by private colleges. These independent colleges are not, like independent schools, required to register with the Department of Education and Science (see p. 21) but they may, like schools, apply for 'recognition as efficient'. The largest group of recognised colleges are those teaching English to foreign students; they belong to the Association of Recognised English-Language Schools. The other recognised colleges are a miscellaneous group including schools of art and architecture, drama, speech and music, commerce, domestic science, wireless telegraph and nautical studies. In 1969 the recognised colleges had 13,148 full-time and 3,560 part-time students.

Correspondence colleges with an estimated annual enrolment of over 500,000 students from Britain and overseas, run many types of course and have a particularly important role in training for some professions, such as the law and accountancy (see p. 50). Over 60 per cent of the students following correspondence courses are enrolled with colleges belonging to the Association of British Correspondence Colleges (ABCC). Following consultation between the government, the ABCC and other colleges, a Council for the Accreditation of Correspondence Colleges[1] was established in 1969. This body has powers to set and make known standards for all aspects of postal tuition and to grant accreditation to those colleges in the United Kingdom which conform to such standards.

The National Extension College (NEC), founded in 1963, prepares students for a variety of courses using a combination of correspondence, broadcasting

[1] *Accreditation of Correspondence Colleges.* Report of the Committee, Association of British Correspondence Colleges, 4–7 Chiswell Street, London EC1Y 4UP.

and direct weekend teaching by part-time tutors as the main teaching elements. In 1970–71 it had 12,250 students, many of whom work on GCE O- and A-level subjects. Others study for external degrees of London University. The college, in co-operation with the British Broadcasting Corporation (BBC), also provides preparatory courses in English, social science and mathematics for the Open University. In April 1971 the NEC received a grant of £25,000 from the Department of Education and Science.

HIGHER EDUCATION

HIGHER EDUCATION consists mainly of work at universities, which are self-governing, and at various colleges under local education authority control —colleges of education, polytechnics and those technical and other colleges of further education which undertake advanced work. The advanced courses are those above the standard required for the Advanced level of the General Certificate of Education (see p. 24) or for the Ordinary National Certificate (see p. 30)—a definition of standards used by the committee under Lord Robbins's chairmanship which was set up in 1961 to examine the future of higher education in Great Britain. (Since government policy towards the universities is concerned with universities throughout Great Britain, this chapter differs from others in Part I of the pamphlet in describing university and general developments in Great Britain, not just England and Wales.)

Expansion of Higher Education

All aspects of higher education have been expanding rapidly in recent years, especially since 1963 when the Robbins committee reported[1] and the government accepted[2] both its premise that higher education should be available to all who are qualified and want it, and its recommendation that there should be 390,000 places in full-time higher education by 1973–74, of which 218,000 should be in university institutions (in 1963 there were 216,000 students in full-time higher education, 126,500 of them in universities). In 1965 the government announced that 122,000 of the 390,000 places should be provided in colleges of education. These aims have been achieved already. In 1969–70 there were 437,000 students in full-time higher education—219,000 in universities, 126,000 in colleges of education and 92,000 pursuing advanced courses in further education establishments.

At the same time other developments, many the result of recommendations contained in the Robbins Report, have led to increased opportunities for students to obtain a degree: between 1964 and 1967 ten universities and two university colleges were created from former Colleges of Advanced Technology and Scottish central institutions; the Council for National Academic Awards was established in 1964 to take over the work of approving suitable courses outside universities and granting degrees and other awards (see p. 46); all the universities associated with colleges of education in teacher training have established Bachelor of Education (B.Ed.) degrees for selected college students (see p. 48); and the Open University was established in 1969 to make available the opportunity for study and qualification at university level to those who want it (see p. 43). Other developments include the creation of a polytechnic system in which higher education outside the universities and the colleges of education is being concentrated (see p. 46), the establishment of two postgraduate business schools, and the conferring of degree awarding powers on the Cranfield Institute of Technology in 1969 and the Royal College of Art in 1967 (see p. 43).

[1] *Higher Education*, Cmnd. 2154, HMSO, 1963.
[2] *Higher Education*. Cmnd. 2165, HMSO, 1963.

An important recent development in technology has been the growth of closer links between higher education establishments and industry. This development has been encouraged by the University Grants Committee (UGC, see below), the Science Research Council and other governmental bodies. For instance, the UGC set aside a special reserve for the promotion of schemes designed to establish closer co-operation between universities and industry—such as the establishment of industrial consultancy units, industrial liaison centres and of courses especially designed to meet industrial needs. The Ministry of Technology (now the Department of Trade and Industry) helped to establish six industrial units—five at universities and the sixth at Cranfield Institute of Technology—in order to channel the specialised knowledge and expertise of universities to the aid of industry. It is also envisaged that the new polytechnics (see p. 46) will develop particularly strong links with industry, especially local industry, and undertake sponsored research projects on its behalf.

Scholarships and Awards

Scholarships and other awards are very widely available, for it is the national educational policy that no able boy or girl shall be prevented by lack of means from taking an advanced course at a university or elsewhere. About 90 per cent of students in higher education in Great Britain are aided from public or private funds.

All students ordinarily resident in Great Britain who possess certain qualifications are eligible for awards from public funds in order to attend full time at a university, college of education, or major further education establishment. The present system in England and Wales was established by the Education Act 1962, which made it the duty of local education authorities to provide awards. In Scotland, students' allowances for advanced courses are awarded by the Scottish Education Department. The amount of the grant depends upon the income of the student and his parents. Awards for advanced postgraduate study are offered annually by the Department of Education and Science, the Scottish Education Department and the research councils.[1] In 1969 about 4,400 awards were made for research in the sciences and about 3,000 for research in arts and social science subjects.

UNIVERSITIES IN GREAT BRITAIN[2]

There are 42 universities (not counting the Open University) in Great Britain. Although the government is responsible for providing some 80 per cent of the universities' income, it does not control their work or teaching, nor does it have direct dealings with the universities. The grants are distributed, and the Secretary of State is advised on university matters, by the University Grants Committee, whose members are drawn from the academic and business worlds, though universities as such are not represented on it.

The English universities are: Aston (Birmingham), Bath, Birmingham,

[1]There are five research councils—the Agricultural Research Council, the Medical Research Council, the Natural Environment Research Council, the Science Research Council and the Social Science Research Council.

[2]For further information see COI reference paper *Universities in Britain*, R5520.

Bradford, Bristol, Brunel (London), Cambridge, City (London), Durham, East Anglia, Essex, Exeter, Hull, Keele, Kent, Lancaster, Leeds, Leicester, Liverpool, London, Loughborough, Manchester, Newcastle upon Tyne, Nottingham, Oxford, Reading, Salford, Sheffield, Southampton, Surrey, Sussex, Warwick and York. The federated University of Wales includes four university colleges (at Aberystwyth, Bangor, Cardiff and Swansea), the Welsh National School of Medicine, the University of Wales Institute of Science and Technology and St. David's College, Lampeter. The Scottish universities are: Aberdeen, Dundee, Edinburgh, Glasgow, Heriot-Watt (Edinburgh), St. Andrews, Stirling and Strathclyde (Glasgow).

The Universities of Oxford and Cambridge date from the twelfth and thirteen centuries, and the Scottish universities of St. Andrews, Glasgow, Aberdeen and Edinburgh from the fifteenth and sixteenth centuries. All the other universities were founded in the nineteenth or twentieth centuries.

There are five other institutions where the work is of university standard: University of Manchester Institute of Science and Technology, whose students read for the degrees of the University of Manchester; the two postgraduate business schools which are supported jointly by industry and the government—the Manchester Business School and the London Graduate School of Business Studies associated with the London School of Economics and the Imperial College of Science and Technology; Cranfield Institute of Technology, for mainly postgraduate work in aeronautics and other subjects; and the Royal College of Art (the last two both receive grants direct from the Department of Education and Science).

The Open University received its charter in 1969 and began its courses (based on the calendar year) in January 1971 for its first 25,000 registered students. The university, which will award its own degrees, provides degree and other courses using a combination of television, radio, correspondence and residential courses together with a network of viewing and listening centres. No formal academic qualifications are required to register for these courses, but the standards of its degrees (to be awarded on a system of credits for each course completed) will be as rigorous as those of other universities. The university is financed by fees and a grant from the Department of Education and Science.

Studies and Degrees

University degree courses generally extend over three or four years, though in architecture, medicine, dentistry and veterinary science five or six years are required. The first degree of Bachelor (Master of Arts in arts faculties in the older Scottish universities) is awarded on the successful completion of these courses. In most universities a general (or ordinary) degree or honours (or special) degree can be taken. Over 75 per cent of students in Great Britain take honours courses. Further study or research is required at most universities[1] for the degree of Master and by all universities for that of Doctor. Actual degree titles vary according to the practice of each university; not all differentiate between the arts and sciences. Diplomas and certificates are awarded after shorter courses in some subjects. A uniform standard of

[1] Excluding Oxford, Cambridge and the older Scottish universities.

degree throughout the country is ensured by having external examiners on all examining boards.

The traditional honours course consists of three or four years' specialised study, but in recent years the content and arrangement of many honours courses has broadened considerably. Some universities offer a wide range of optional subjects: others have joint honours courses in arts, in which two main subjects are studied at the same time. This trend is especially noticeable in the new universities. At Keele students take a common first-year course and then have to take arts and science subjects, while Sussex, East Anglia, Essex, Kent and Warwick have schools of studies in which a number of subjects are related. Courses at the technological universities are frequently of the 'sandwich' type (see p. 30).

Courses in arts, science and social science are offered by most universities and, at nearly all, courses are available in one or more applied sciences: Imperial College, London, the University of Manchester Institute of Science and Technology, the University of Strathclyde and the technological universities concentrate on science and technology, although the latter are broadening their curricula to include social studies, humanities and other non-technological subjects. In the academic year 1969–70 about 45·3 per cent of full-time university students in Great Britain were taking arts or social studies courses and 41 per cent were studying science or technology; a further 10 per cent were studying medicine, dentistry and health and the remainder agriculture, forestry, veterinary science, architecture and town and country planning.

University teaching combines lectures, practical classes (in scientific subjects) and small-group teaching in either seminars or tutorials, the last being a distinctive feature of the Universities of Oxford and Cambridge, though not by any means confined to them. There has been a growing interest in recent years in the use of audio-visual aids, particularly following the publication of a report in 1965—*Audio-Visual Aids in Higher Scientific Education* (see Reading List). About 75 per cent of universities have established audio-visual aids centres including closed-circuit television networks.

Most members of the academic staff devote time to research and at all universities there are postgraduate research students. A postgraduate student usually carries out independent research under the supervision of a member of the university staff. He may, alternatively, undertake one or more years' guided study leading to an examination.

Students and Staff

Admission to the universities for a first degree is by examination and selection; there is no religious test or colour bar, and each university or, at some federal universities, each college is free to decide which students to admit, though successful candidates must have satisfied the minimum entrance requirements of the establishment concerned. These vary from university to university but generally the minimum entrance qualification is at least five passes in the GCE including two at Advanced level (see p. 24).

Prospective candidates for all the universities (except United Kingdom candidates for only one or more of the universities of Glasgow, Aberdeen, and Strathclyde and all candidates for the Open University) must first apply

through the Universities Central Council on Admissions (UCCA), listing the universities (a maximum of five) to which they wish to apply. The council acts as a clearing house and passes on rejected applications to the next university on the candidate's list. Candidates for postgraduate courses apply directly to the university of their choice.

Despite the recent expansion programmes the number of qualified applicants continues to exceed the number of university places available. It is estimated that in 1968–69 about 75 per cent of the qualified candidates applying for the first time obtained a place. However, the proportion of the age group entering university has been steadily rising. In 1968 the proportion was 7·7 per cent as compared to 5·1 per cent in 1963.

Of the 219,000 full-time students in university in Great Britain in 1969–70, some 39,000 were postgraduates. In addition, there were about 24,000 part-time students, more than 98·5 per cent of whom were working for university-level qualifications. About 28 per cent of all full-time students are women. Women are admitted on equal terms with men for most subjects, but at Cambridge their numbers are limited by university statute. In the past decade there has been a substantial increase in the provision of residential accommodation for students and the UGC estimates that in 1970–71 the proportion of students in residence, in lodgings and at home will be about 40 per cent, 43 per cent and 17 per cent respectively.

In 1969–70 there were nearly 27,000 full-time university teachers and research staff in Great Britain paid wholly from university funds, some 11·6 per cent of whom were professors. The ratio of staff to students—about 1 to 8—is one of the most favourable in the world and has the practical effect of keeping the student 'failure' rate low. Only about 13 per cent of students entering university fail to obtain a degree.

University Government and Finance

As universities administer themselves according to the terms of their individual charters, their forms of government vary. Oxford and Cambridge are each composed of a number of residential colleges which are corporate bodies governed by their own fellows and distinct from the university. Most of the fellows of the colleges, however, are university teachers or officers and the majority of university teachers are also fellows of colleges. Only the universities themselves have the right to confer degrees, and they provide central libraries and laboratories as well as much formal instruction. Government of these universities is entirely in their own hands. The Universities of London (with about 33,000 full-time students, by far the largest in Britain) and Wales are federal: academic and financial matters concerning the whole university are controlled by the central authorities, which include lay representatives; the constituent colleges and institutions manage all other matters for themselves. At most of the other universities, especially those which owe their foundation to local initiative, the lay element has an important role in university administration.

The government contributes over 70 per cent towards the current income of universities and about 90 per cent towards their capital programmes. Money for recurrent purposes is given mainly in the form of a block grant to the University Grants Committee, which then allocates the grant between

the universities. In addition to those for building work, grants are also made for purchasing sites and properties, for professional fees, and for the furnishing of buildings and equipment. Further sums are raised by the universities themselves and some have considerable endowments and property.

Recurrent grants for the financial year 1970–71 were estimated at some £220 million, about three times the amount for 1960–61. Capital grants paid out during 1970–71 are expected to be about £69 million—almost three times the 1960–61 figure. The Comptroller and Auditor General has access to the books and the universities to check that the funds are efficiently administered. He cannot question policy decisions or decisions reached on academic grounds.

HIGHER EDUCATION WITHIN THE FURTHER EDUCATION SYSTEM

Advanced course work[1] is largely concentrated in the new institutions known as 'polytechnics'. Following the White Paper, *Plan for Polytechnics and Other Colleges*,[2] certain major technical colleges have been reorganised to form the polytechnics, which also include some art colleges. The polytechnics are broadly based academic communities catering for full-time, sandwich-course and part-time students at all levels of higher education. Of the 30 polytechnics proposed in the White Paper, 28 had been designated by May 1971 and the remaining two are under discussion.

There are also technical colleges, colleges of commerce and art colleges which provide further education at all levels.

Studies and Qualifications

As at lower levels, there is a wide variety of qualifications. There are the two-year Higher National Certificates (HNC) and the two- or three-year Higher National Diplomas (HND) administered in the same way as Ordinary National Certificates and Ordinary National Diplomas (see p. 30) in a wide range of technical subjects and business studies. Within their more limited field HNDs are recognised as approaching the level of a pass degree; HNCs, because of the time limitations, are more narrowly based. Students may also take full-time and part-time courses leading to the qualifications of professional bodies (see p. 50).

The highest awards for further education students are the external degree of the University of London[3] and the degrees of the Council for National Academic Awards (CNAA). The council, whose powers extend throughout Great Britain, was established in 1964 on the recommendation of the Robbins committee to provide more opportunities for students to take degree courses in further education establishments and to cater especially for those with an interest in industry and commerce. It awards degrees and other qualifications comparable in standard with those granted by universities, to students who complete approved courses of study or research organised on a full-time, sandwich or part-time basis in establishments which do not have the power

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[1] See definition, p. 41.

[2] Cmnd. 3006, HMSO, 1966, 7½p.

[3] Students at some London technical colleges work for internal degrees.

to award their own degrees. Most of the students taking CNAA degrees are in the polytechnics. Courses are examined in detail before being approved as suitable for leading to a CNAA award. Apart from this, however, the colleges are free to devise their own curricula and syllabuses and to teach their students according to those syllabuses. The council itself is not an examining body, its degrees being awarded on the basis of examinations drawn up by the colleges providing the courses. At the beginning of the academic year 1970–71 there were 301 CNAA first-degree courses and 23 postgraduate courses being provided by 42 colleges (4 in Scotland). Of the undergraduate courses, some 58 per cent were sandwich courses and 34 per cent full-time and 8 per cent part-time courses. A total of nearly 24,000 students were enrolled for the first-degree courses, and 244 for the postgraduate masters degree courses. In December 1970 there were 869 candidates registered for the council's research degrees of M.Phil. and Ph.D. The majority of students followed scientific or technological studies, but art and social science courses form an increasing proportion. Within the high standards set by the council, however, the colleges are allowed a wide measure of freedom to plan and develop their own courses reflecting the needs of industry and commerce and the attributes and experience of their own staffs, and also to examine their own students with the help of external examiners approved by the council.

Business and Management Studies

Business and management studies provided by technical colleges include full-time and sandwich courses for CNAA degrees, Higher National Diplomas in Business Studies, part-time courses for the Higher National Certificate in Business Studies, and postgraduate courses for the Diploma in Management Studies.[1] The colleges offer a wide range of other courses in various aspects of management.

Art Courses

Nearly 40 per cent of full-time art students in 1969–70 were taking advanced courses in art and design, most of which lead to a national qualification, the Diploma in Art and Design (Dip.A.D.). This qualification, obtained after a three-year full-time course, is broadly comparable to a university pass degree and is administered by the National Council for Diplomas in Art and Design, an independent self-governing body established in 1961. To attain the standard required for entry to a Dip.A.D. course most students need a year of full-time art education after leaving school. The courses are provided in separate art colleges and polytechnics—40 colleges in all.[2] Some colleges also provide courses leading to a Higher Diploma in Art and a Higher Diploma in Design, these also being administered by the council.

The Royal College of Art, the senior art college in Britain, has, since it

[1]Many postgraduate courses for recent graduate students and 'post-experience' courses for practising businessmen, as well as the Diploma in Management Studies, are provided by university institutions (see p. 44), especially the former colleges of advanced technology. There are also independent colleges, many of which have been established by individual companies and by trade and industrial federations.

[2]Some advanced work and most of the advanced history of art study is provided by university art schools.

received its Royal Charter in 1967, the power to grant its own degrees—higher degrees in Art and Design and, in special circumstances, first degrees.

Students

In 1969–70 there were 197,526 students on advanced courses leading to recognised qualifications in colleges of further education. The majority, unlike university students, are on part-time courses: there were 72,068 part-time day students and 42,572 evening students, compared with 54,814 full-time and 28,072 sandwich students.

THE EDUCATION AND TRAINING OF TEACHERS

This section describes (for England and Wales) the facilities for the education and training of teachers, the third main branch of the higher education system.[1] The qualifications for teaching and the supply of teachers are dealt with on p. 52.

Three-year courses of education and training for intending teachers are provided mainly in colleges of education. For a few well-qualified older students the course may be shorter. Following a recommendation of the Robbins Report, suitable college of education students are now able to work for a degree (Bachelor of Education), together with a professional teaching qualification, by means of a four-year course. University graduates can follow a one-year course at university departments of education or a number of colleges in order to obtain a teaching qualification in addition to their degree (see p. 52). One-year courses for holders of advanced qualifications in art are available in art teacher-training centres.

Twenty-one institutes of education (in some cases known as 'schools of education') act as area training organisations. These are practically all university-based and bring together representatives of training institutions, local education authorities and teachers in the area. They are responsible for the content and standards of the college course (which they have recently studied to see whether it fulfils its purpose in the best way[2]) and are also responsible for examining students and recommending them as qualified teachers. They act to integrate the training facilities in the area and also promote the study of education by providing courses for serving teachers and fostering research.

Financial and administrative control of the individual colleges is the responsibility of the bodies providing them—local education authorities or voluntary bodies, many of which are religious denominations. The cost of the local authority colleges is shared between all authorities in proportion to the number of children on the registers in their area. At colleges provided by voluntary bodies, the whole of the maintenance costs and up to 80 per cent of the costs of approved building work are reimbursed by the Department of Education and Science.

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[1]For further information see COI reference paper *Teacher Training in Britain*, R5279. A committee to inquire into the system of teacher training was set up under the chairmanship of Lord James of Rusholme, Vice-Chancellor of York University, by the Secretary of State for Education and Science in December 1970.

[2]The findings of this study are being made available to the James committee.

Colleges

In the academic year 1970–71 there were 211 teacher-training establishments of all kinds, including 157 colleges of education. The colleges vary in size, the smallest having fewer than 250 students and the largest ones over 1,000. Although they were previously mainly residential institutions, only about 37 per cent of the students now live in colleges or college hostels. All the colleges have some day students and there are 15 colleges for day students only, most of which cater particularly for older students who cannot conveniently attend courses far from their homes.

The 211 teacher-training establishments also include 30 university departments of education providing courses for graduates; 13 art-teacher training centres providing courses for holders of advanced qualifications in art; 4 colleges of education (technical) whose main function is to train teachers of technical subjects in establishments for further education; and 7 departments of education in polytechnics which fulfil the same functions as the colleges of education.

Studies and Qualifications

The three-year course at a college of education (extended from two years in 1960) combines in concurrent form the personal higher education of the student with professional training for teaching. The latter includes substantial periods of practice in schools alongside theoretical study. The minimum academic qualifications required for entry are five passes at the Ordinary level of the General Certificate of Education but in 1969 more than 63 per cent of the new students admitted to the colleges had one or more passes at the Advanced level of the GCE.

The education departments, universities, colleges of education, local education authorities and other bodies provide a large number of short refresher and specialist courses for practising teachers. There are one-year full-time courses leading to the specialist qualifications required by teachers who wish to teach the deaf or partially hearing, or the blind or partially sighted; alternatively, teachers may obtain these qualifications by part-time study while in an appropriate special school.

Students

In 1970–71 there were about 111,230 students in colleges and departments of education outside universities, about 6,270 in university departments of education and nearly 2,390 in colleges of education (technical) and art teacher-training centres. The total of 119,890 students is just over three times that for 1960–61.

EDUCATION FOR THE PROFESSIONS AND THE ARTS

Education for the professions is undertaken in a number of ways. In a few cases—for example medicine, teaching and some branches of social work—it consists of full-time study at universities, colleges of education or colleges of further education. In many cases it is undertaken on a part-time basis for the professional qualifications and standards prescribed and enforced by associations formed by members of the profession. Well over 100 of these

associations are examining bodies and some have powers supported by legislation. In a number of other professions, education is on a full-time basis at independent institutions—for example, for the Church, and for speech, music and drama.

Professional Associations

The pattern of education for membership varies widely between the different professional associations. There are comparatively few for which prospective entrants must undergo a course of higher education, although it is generally regarded as an advantage to have done so. Successful completion of such a course is, however, the usual mode of entry for the scientific and technological associations, since it gives exemption from the associations' own examinations. Other professional associations, while drawing nearly all their members from universities and technical colleges, do not necessarily allow exemptions from their main qualifying examinations. (For example, the Institute of Builders.)

The commercial professions—such as accountancy, the actuarial and company secretary professions, but excepting the statistical profession regulated by the Institute of Statisticians—do not recruit many graduates and graduates are exempted from the intermediate examinations only. The normal method of study for qualification is practical training in the work under 'articles of agreement' with a qualified practitioner, combined with correspondence courses or part-time attendance at classes. A number of professional bodies are, however, now recognising the higher national awards in business studies and are prepared to allow certain exemptions from their own examinations for holders of these awards.

The two branches of the legal profession[1] have different methods of training and different professional bodies. For membership of the Law Society, which controls the qualifications of solicitors, students must combine practical training with study for the Law Society's examinations, and unless they are barristers or graduates they must also attend a course at a recognised law school. Intending barristers must pass the examination of the Council of Legal Education, a law school under the control of the Inns of Court. Students have also to be members of an Inn, usually for three years, and complete a year's pupillage with an established barrister. (Graduates are exempted from the intermediate examination only.)

Theological Colleges

There are university and non-university theological colleges providing complete training courses for those entering the Church. About thirty colleges prepare students for the General Ordination Examination of the Church of England. The final examination is equivalent in standard to a university degree.

Many of the 17 theological colleges of the Free Churches are in university cities and in some cases form part of the university's faculty of theology.

There are four major Roman Catholic seminaries; and also facilities for students in monastic orders to follow courses.

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[1]For further information see COI reference pamphlet *The English Legal System*, R5312.

Colleges of Speech, Music and Drama

Most universities offer degree courses in music, with special reference to its theoretical and historical aspects; degree courses in drama are offered by the Universities of Birmingham, Bristol, Exeter, Hull, Manchester, Glasgow and Wales (Bangor and Swansea). The University of Manchester also has a diploma course in theatre-craft (including radio and television) and the University of London offers a Diploma in Dramatic Art.

Training for all branches of the artistic professions is provided by the specialised colleges, most of which are independent institutions; some are further education institutions recognised as efficient (see p. 39). Some of their advanced students read for qualifications recognised as equivalent to degrees; others take diplomas, associateships or licentiateships of the colleges concerned—most of them being recognised qualifications for performing or teaching. These colleges include four direct-grant institutions: the Royal Academy of Music, the Royal College of Music, the Royal Academy of Dramatic Art (all of which are in London), and the Royal Manchester College of Music. Among independent colleges are: the Central School of Music and Drama, London, the Birmingham School of Music, and the Northern School of Music, Manchester,[1] which all receive local education authority grants; Trinity College of Music, London; the Guildhall School of Music and Drama, aided by the Corporation of the City of London; the London Academy of Music and Dramatic Art; the Rose Bruford Training College of Speech and Drama, Kent; and the Bristol Old Vic Theatre School.

Armed Services Colleges

Each of the armed services maintains its own colleges, where some courses qualify as higher education. They include the Royal Military College of Science, Shrivenham, the Royal Naval Engineering College, Manadon, Plymouth, and the Royal Air Force College at Cranwell in Lincolnshire which devise their own degree courses under the auspices of the Council for National Academic Awards (see p. 46); the Royal Naval College, Greenwich,[2] which also provides degree courses; and the Royal Military Academy Sandhurst, which provides work of first-year university standard.

Other Colleges

Other independent colleges providing full-time professional education include the Architectural Association School, and some secretarial colleges.

[1]A new Northern College of Music is being created as a result of a merger between the Royal Manchester College of Music and the Northern School of Music, Manchester; the new college will be opened in 1972.

[2]The Royal Naval College is discussing with the City University the provision of appropriate courses at Greenwich which will lead to degrees of that university.

TEACHERS AND TEACHING AIDS

TEACHERS are appointed by local education authorities or school governing bodies or managers. They are not civil servants.

Teachers in maintained schools, except for a small number of temporary and student teachers,[1] must be approved as 'qualified' by the Department of Education and Science. The majority of teachers obtain an approved teaching qualification by attending a three-year course of study at a college of education. Some obtain a Bachelor of Education (B.Ed.) degree with this qualification by means of a four-year course (see p. 48). Until January 1970 all graduates and holders of certain specialist qualifications were qualified to teach by virtue of their degree or specialist qualification.

Following an announcement of September 1969, however, which was designed to further the aim of achieving a fully qualified and trained teaching force, no one whose degree was obtained after 1 January 1970 can teach in a maintained primary school without having successfully completed a course of professional training. The same will apply with respect to secondary schools for those whose first degree was obtained in 1974 or later. Those who obtained degrees in and before 1969 can still teach untrained in maintained primary and secondary schools and those who graduate from 1970 to 1 January 1974 in maintained secondary schools. Training courses for graduates are provided in university departments of education and in a number of colleges of education, and for holders of certain specialist qualifications in some of these colleges.

To maintain and regularise the professional standards of the teaching profession a working party has proposed[2] the establishment of a teaching council similar to the General Teaching Council in Scotland (see p. 70). This proposal is now being examined by the parties concerned.

There is no formal training for university teachers, who are generally appointed for their academic achievements.

Teacher Supply

In 1970 there were about 334,400 full-time teachers and about 48,000 part-time teachers (the equivalent of about 21,500 full-time teachers) in publicly maintained primary and secondary schools in England and Wales. The ratio of qualified teachers to pupils in these maintained schools was 1 to 23·1. There were over 51,000 full-time teachers in grant-aided establishments of further education and, because of the special conditions, many more part-time teachers. Most teachers in technical colleges have industrial and professional experience.

With a steadily increasing school population which, allowing for the raising of the school leaving age to 16 in 1972–73, is expected to reach 9 million in 1975, the supply of teachers in England and Wales as in many

[1]Student teachers must be over 18, with the educational qualifications necessary for entry to an initial course of teacher training, and intending to obtain qualifications for qualified teacher status.

[2]*A Teaching Council for England and Wales*, HMSO, 1970, 22½p.

other countries has been one of the most important educational problems. The total number of teachers employed is, however, now rising by about 18,000 a year and teacher–pupil ratios are improving rapidly. The expansion of the colleges of education has been the main contributory factor, though the success of government recruiting schemes in encouraging more graduate and mature men and women to enter the profession and in persuading married women to return to teaching have contributed to this improvement. The total number of teachers should continue to increase rapidly for the next few years. There are still shortages in specialist subjects such as mathematics, science, English and in infant teaching.

Salaries

There are national salary scales for teachers in schools and other educational institutions maintained from public funds; and these scales influence the salaries paid to teachers in independent schools. There is also a national superannuation scheme administered by the Department of Education and Science.

Under the Remuneration of Teachers Act 1965,[1] salaries in England and Wales are negotiated by three joint committees, each consisting of representatives of the teachers on the one hand and of local authorities and the government on the other. They are concerned with salaries for teachers in maintained schools, colleges of further education and farm institutes.

The salaries of teaching staff of colleges of education are negotiated by an independent committee representative of the teachers and the employing authorities.

TEACHING AIDS AND EDUCATIONAL TECHNIQUES

The latest developments in educational broadcasting and programmed learning and new uses of audio-visual aids are having a significant effect on educational techniques.

Broadcasting for Schools and Colleges of Further Education[2]

This and the following section describes developments throughout Britain, since broadcasting throughout the country is the responsibility of the British Broadcasting Corporation (BBC) and the Independent Television Authority (ITA). The BBC's radio programmes for schools began in 1924, and the schools' television programmes broadcast by the BBC and the ITA began in 1957.

The BBC's general policy for school broadcasting and the scope and purpose of each series are laid down by the School Broadcasting Council for the United Kingdom, a body on which professional associations of teachers,

[1]This replaced the machinery, under which the government had no place on the management panel and could not therefore play any part in the salary negotiations. It was empowered only to accept or reject, but not to modify the proposals.

[2]For details of the organisation of broadcasting in Britain see COI reference pamphlet *Sound and Television Broadcasting in Britain*, R5531; and for further information on educational broadcasting see COI reference paper *Educational Television and Radio in Britain*, R5781.

local education authorities, the Department of Education and Science and other educational organisations are represented. The council has its own permanent staff and a team of 22 full-time education officers, usually former teachers, in various parts of the country who visit schools to assess the effectiveness of programmes, study schools' needs for and use of broadcast material, contribute to teacher-training courses and maintain liaison between schools and other educational bodies in their area and the BBC. All education officers may assist in inquiries into further educational broadcasting, but this is primarily the responsibility of a small group within the team who are specialist area further education officers. There are separate School Broadcasting Councils for Scotland and Wales which are concerned with programmes of local interest to these areas. The ITA is advised on general policy for educational programmes by its Educational Advisory Council; detailed planning of programmes is the responsibility of two education committees, one of which is concerned with schools, the other with adult and further education. The ITA and the programme producing companies have permanent education staff and maintain liaison arrangements with schools similar to those of the BBC.

Consultation takes place between the BBC and the ITA at programme staff level to prevent unnecessary duplication of material.

The programmes are planned in series and each series is specially designed, in consultation with educational advisers, to meet the needs of children within a clearly defined age range.

In the academic year 1970–71 the School Broadcasting Department of the BBC provided 77 different series of radio programmes to schools. Most of them were weekly and continued throughout the educational year; a few were repeated within each week to make it easier for schools to arrange their listening times. Of the programmes, 7 were made in Scotland specially for Scottish schools, 11 were made for schools in Wales and 4 for schools in Northern Ireland. About 91 per cent of the schools in Britain use BBC school radio programmes. Radio broadcasts for schools are also provided by the 20 BBC local radio stations. Many of these programmes are produced by local teachers.

Subject to certain specified legal requirements, schools may tape-record broadcasts, and about three-quarters of the infant schools, the great majority of junior schools and virtually all secondary schools are now equipped with tape-recorders. A small but increasing number of secondary schools possess videotape-recorders. Radiovision, now an accepted and widely used audio-visual medium in its own right, combining radio broadcast and colour filmstrip, is designed specifically for tape-recorded use. This is a powerful aid in geography, history and arts programmes which can be used many times and fitted into timetables when convenient.

Television is used by nearly 70 per cent of all schools in Britain. In 1970–71 the BBC provided 28 programme series for schools throughout Britain. Two weekly programmes for technical colleges were also used in secondary schools. In addition the BBC regional services broadcast two programme series for schools in Scotland, six for schools in Wales, and one for schools in Northern Ireland. All programmes but one were given at least two transmissions to enable schools to make the maximum use of them. During the

same school year the ITA broadcast 36 series of programmes for schools, 24 of which were shown on the national network. The networked programmes were broadcast weekly or, in the case of three series, every other week, and 12 of them continued throughout the three terms. The local series of programmes produced by the regional companies were usually designed to meet the particular needs of the schools in their areas.

Among developments in BBC school broadcasting in 1970–71 were the introduction of a new television series of active music-making for younger juniors and a new radio music 'club' series for 14–16-year-olds; a second year of the television mathematics series for older juniors; a new history series with extensive accompanying documentary resource material for 11–14s; and a new television series for children of 10–13 in primary and secondary schools, telling of real events which reflect man's mastery over his environment and which aimed to contribute to integrated studies and team teaching. Some of the new ITA series were directed at the young school-leavers; and there was a series, produced by Yorkshire Television and networked nationally, which was the first television series in Britain designed for children in their first year at school. A series on reading, produced by Granada Television, has been found useful for pre-school children. Both the BBC and ITA have a rapidly increasing audience in primary schools.

School radio and television provide experiences for children which not only extend their knowledge, imagination and appreciation but also stimulate them to further observation, experiments and creative and practical work. Most programmes enrich and support the work of the specialist and non-specialist teachers alike, while others are designed particularly to assist the non-specialist.

Nearly all series of programmes have teachers' notes and many BBC and ITA television and most BBC radio series also have a pupils' pamphlet. The BBC also provides a wide range of other supporting material for various series, including work cards, folders of documentary material, filmstrips, filmloops, and long-playing records.

Other Broadcasting

Education programmes for adults are broadcast on radio by the BBC and on television by the BBC and the ITA.

Advice from educational bodies on these programmes is given to the BBC through its Further Education Advisory Committee, and to the ITA through the Adult Education Committee of its Educational Advisory Council (see p. 54).

These educational programmes are defined as those (other than school broadcasts) which are 'arranged in series and planned in consultation with appropriate educational bodies to help viewers towards a progressive mastery or understanding of some skill or body of knowledge'. The definition includes programmes designed for class use (at technical colleges or institutes of adult education, for example), as well as those primarily designed for the home viewer.

Many of these programmes are supported by booklets with background information and there are pronunciation records for some of the language programmes. Special arrangements are made in some areas by adult

education organisations, such as evening institutes and university extra-mural departments to form viewing and discussion groups. In some cases these are followed up by short residential courses at adult education colleges.

The radio series are broadcast on five evenings during the week as well as on Saturday and Sunday mornings. The programmes, which usually last half an hour, are broadcast either on Radio 3 VHF or on Radio 4. Both broadcasting authorities transmit educational television series on Saturday and Sunday mornings and late at night during the week. (Since January 1971 the programmes of the Open University—see p. 43—have been broadcast on BBC2 at a peak viewing time in the early evening, and on BBC VHF radio.)

These programmes are designed to meet the needs of people who want a service of facts, skills and ideas. The BBC's programmes include series on learning a language, history, literature; the arts; interests such as driving, cooking, photography; and shorthand practice. The ITA broadcasts some similar series, and also programmes on agriculture, 'do-it-yourself' household repairs, gardening, and training the family dog.

Other Teaching Aids

Considerable interest is shown in programmed learning and the Association for Programmed Learning and Educational Technology promotes its use by various means including an annual conference, a series of weekend courses in London, and various regional conferences and courses. The association also produces several publications, among which are a Yearbook, which includes a list of 'Programmes in Print'; a monthly journal; proceedings of conferences; and the 'Programmed Learning News' section of the monthly magazine *Visual Education*, which is the journal of the National Committee for Audio-Visual Aids in Education.

Tape-recorders are being widely used in the teaching of languages. Their most advanced use is in the language laboratory, in which the students work in their own cubicles, each of which contains a tape-recorder and head-set connected to a main console. This enables the teacher to distribute 'master' recordings on to the student tapes for individual playing, and to monitor the students individually as they respond to these recordings without interrupting the work of the rest of the class. Some 1,500 language laboratories are estimated to be in use in Britain.

Closed-circuit television is in regular use at many universities, medical schools, polytechnics and technical colleges, colleges of education and schools. Glasgow and Plymouth have linked schools in their areas to a central studio and several other education authorities are working on similar plans. The Inner London Education Authority has an educational television service covering all its schools and further education colleges; some 3,500 receivers are in use.

Other visual aids to education—films, filmstrips, wallcharts, pictures and models—are all in common use.

Promotion of Audio-Visual Aids

The use of all types of audio-visual aids is promoted by the National Committee for Audio-Visual Aids in Education, the Educational Foundation for Visual Aids, and the National Council for Educational Technology.

The committee, which is equally representative of local education authorities and of teachers, determines policy and recommends subjects for visual treatment by the foundation and advises on the educational aspects of production.

The foundation, established in 1948 by the local education authorities and the Ministry of Education as an educational trust, arranges for the production of films and filmstrips with the co-operation of commercial producers, sometimes with international co-production, and often sponsors the production. It also advises education authorities on visual aid apparatus. The foundation publishes a catalogue of films, filmstrips and transparencies made for teaching purposes by all educational producers, and its film library holds a complete range of classroom films for hire. The library works in association with local film libraries set up by local education authorities. There is also a sales service; the foundation supplies all forms of audio-visual equipment, arranges demonstrations, and provides a maintenance and repair service.

In 1964 the National Committee and the Educational Foundation established the National Audio-Visual Aids Centre to provide educationists with a centralised and authoritative source of information and advice on all practical problems associated with audio-visual methods in education. This centre (which is unique) houses a permanent display of equipment and materials and has a large training department which runs courses for educationists. In 1971 the National Committee launched its own Diploma Course in Educational Technology, and courses for this are held at the National Centre. This diploma is awarded as a result of credits gained by persons completing a three-year part-time course of study (a series of one-day, two-day and one-week courses), thereby making it possible for those people to attend who are unable to be seconded for longer periods of time from their places of employment.

The National Council for Educational Technology (NCET) is a government-sponsored body set up in 1967 to promote the development of educational technology at all levels of education throughout Britain. The council's membership includes the three education departments,[1] and representatives from industry, the trade unions, local education authorities, the universities, colleges of education, and schools.

One of the council's main activities is to spread knowledge of educational technology. The council's two-year Familiarisation Project is creating a set of materials for use primarily in the in-service training of teachers. The council is also considering a Learning Programmes Project designed to create a national system of new media for use in subject teaching for students in initial teacher-training courses. One of the NCET's most important projects is the eventual establishment of a computerised data bank which will provide comprehensive information on educational technology: a first move has been the creation of a 'Higher Education Learning Programmes Information Service' catalogue of material available for exchange between individual institutions. The catalogue, thought to be the first in the world, will consist of materials in all media (films, videotapes, slides, etc.) made in particular

[1]The Department of Education and Science, the Scottish Education Department and the Northern Ireland Ministry of Education.

universities, colleges of education and other institutions. The NCET also publishes the *British Journal of Educational Technology* which provides information about innovative educational methods and techniques.

The council is concerned to spread knowledge about the potential application of the computer to teaching and learning, and has made a major study of the subject. A number of reports have been published and the council has made various recommendations to the government.

EDUCATIONAL RESEARCH

RESEARCH into the theory and practice of education and the organisation of educational services is supported financially by the Department of Education and Science (directly through its own research programme and indirectly through other bodies), the local education authorities, by philanthropic organisations (see below), by universities from the general funds at their disposal, and by the teachers' associations. The Schools Council (financed jointly by central government and local education authorities) and the Social Science Research Council (financed from central government funds) are additional channels for substantial support in this field.

The greater proportion of the educational research undertaken in England and Wales is done in the universities, particularly within departments, institutes and schools of education and also within departments concerned with sociology, psychology, statistics and problems of physical and mental handicap.

The major institute undertaking research in education, outside the universities, is the National Foundation for Educational Research (NFER), an autonomous body which derives its general income mainly from corporate members, including local education authorities, teachers' organisations and universities, and from an annual grant made by the Department of Education and Science. It also receives fees from these and other bodies for undertaking specific research projects. Its research programme covers most aspects of primary, secondary and further education, and in addition it provides test services, statistical services and an information service for its members.

Some educational research is undertaken at colleges of education and polytechnics, and by a few independent research organisations.

There is no single central organisation for co-ordination of educational research as a whole but, by maintaining close liaison with the other major sponsors and by consulting the publications issued by the various research organisations, the Department of Education and Science keeps itself informed of work being considered and undertaken elsewhere.

The Social Science Research Council, which has as its primary function the task of stimulating and assisting research in all the social sciences including education, established in 1967 the Educational Research Board with responsibility for examining the existing structure of educational research and for relating research findings to educational practice.

The Schools Council (see p. 10) provides assistance to those having individual or joint responsibilities for the schools' curricula and examinations. Its primary function is to stimulate educational development and to this end it sponsors a number of research projects and maintains close co-operation with the National Foundation for Educational Research. The National Council for Educational Technology also co-ordinates and encourages research in educational aids and equipment.

The Centre for Information on Language Teaching was established in 1966 by the Department of Education and Science and the Scottish Education Department, to collect and co-ordinate information about all aspects of modern languages and their teaching and to make this information available

to individuals and organisations professionally concerned in Great Britain. The centre maintains a register of current research and acts as a clearing house for information about teaching materials and the development of new aids and techniques. A reference library and documentation service form part of its resources. It is also responsible for channelling to appropriate sponsors for consideration new research proposals in the modern languages field that do not fall obviously within the already defined interests of specific supporting agencies.

Among philanthropic organisations that provide generously for research are the Nuffield Foundation, the Ford Foundation, the Gulbenkian Trust, the Leverhulme Trust, the Bernard van Leer Foundation, the Rockefeller Foundation, the Carnegie United Kingdom Trust, the Wolfson Foundation and the Foundation for Management Education.

A new teaching scheme devised for the Schools Council (see p. 10) 'initial literacy' programme.

A music lesson in a Nottingham infants school.

'Open Plan' designs in primary schools

Flexibility in the use of space.

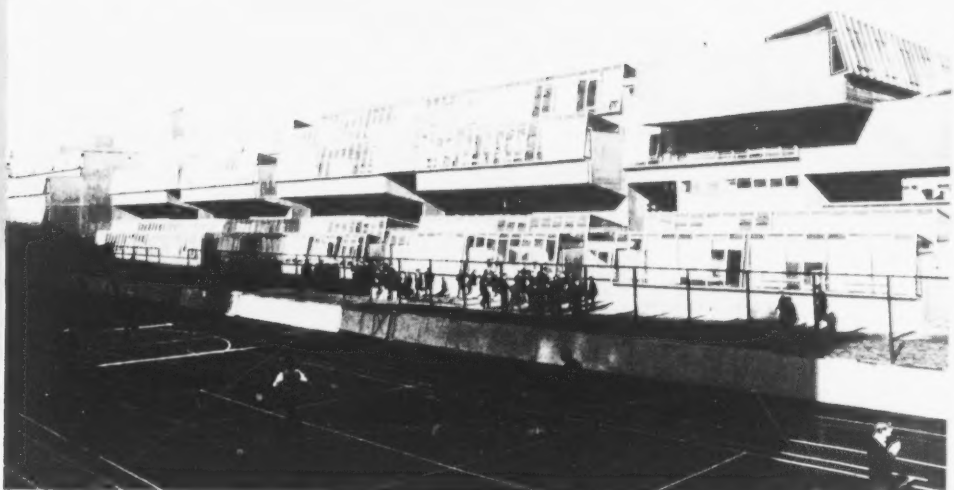
A library corner.

A dining area.

Secondary schools

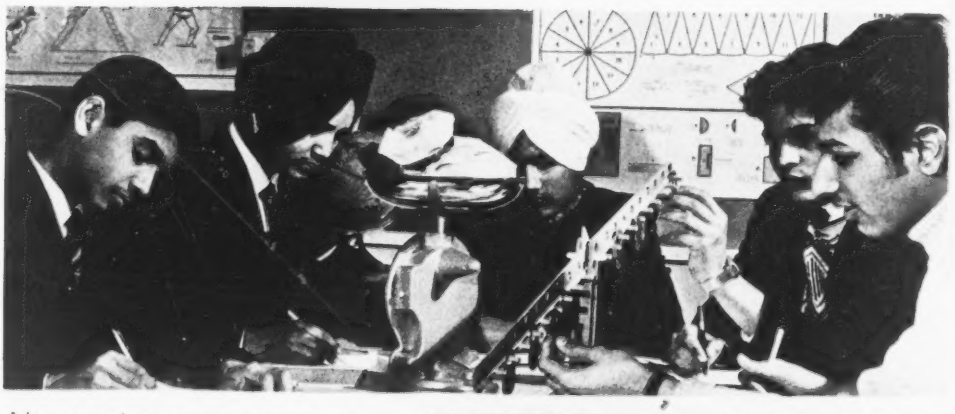
A grammar school French lesson with a teacher from Paris.

Pupils in a Northern Ireland secondary (intermediate) school constructing a glass fibre canoe.



A new comprehensive school in inner London.

Further education

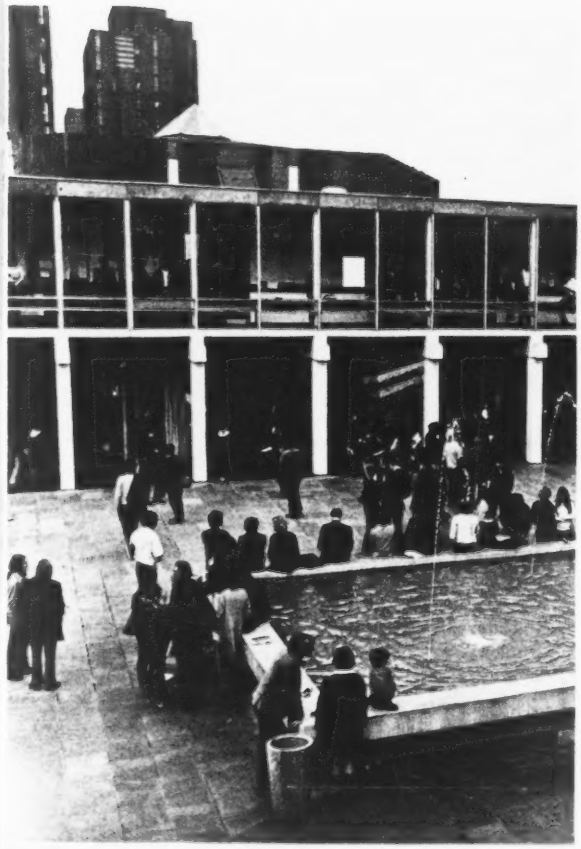


A language class at a special centre for young immigrants.

Top: A student on a diploma course in industrial dress design.

A business studies project in a technical college.

Universities



Research and teaching equipment used with London University's nuclear reactor.

Essex University: a pedestrian square with tower residential blocks in the background.

Leicester University.

Adult education

Instruction in car maintenance for women.

Top: Workers from pre-school play-groups attending a training course.

An evening class in sculpture.

Special education

Specialised speech training for deaf children.

Bottom: Students teaching in a hospital ward as part of their training for a diploma in special education.

A school for handicapped children.

Educational television

Production staff in one of the control rooms of the ILEA Educational Television Service (see p 56)

An Open University student watches a television lesson at home.

A closed-circuit television studio in a college of education.

EDUCATIONAL BUILDING

LOCAL EDUCATION AUTHORITIES are responsible, under the general supervision and guidance of the Department of Education and Science and the Welsh Education Office, for providing the schools and other buildings needed for the sectors of public education which they administer. The department announces the levels of annual building programmes, frames regulations, fixes cost limits and decides upon the size and nature of authorities' individual programmes in the light of national priorities. Through its specialist department (the Architects and Buildings Branch) it also offers advice, for example, by issuing building bulletins on particular subjects.

Voluntary schools (see p. 13) are helped to keep pace with county schools in the standard of their building with grants for alterations, improvements and external repairs amounting at present to 80 per cent of the approved cost. Grants may also be made towards the building of new aided schools.

An extensive building programme for education has been undertaken since the late 1940s. Between 1946 and 1969 over 7,000 new schools or departments were completed, and extensions were made to a very large number of existing schools. The total number of new places provided between 1947 and December 1970 was more than 5·6 million. As a result, by the end of 1969 nearly half the school population was in buildings completed within the previous 20 years and efforts are being made to bring all the schools in the country up to modern standards.

Under a five-year programme starting in 1972–73 the government is aiming to eliminate primary schools built in the nineteenth century which are deficient in accommodation and amenities. A special allocation of £38·5 million has been made for this purpose as part of a total allocation of £186 million for primary and secondary school building in 1972–73, and a further £144 million has been allocated for the period 1973–74 to 1975–76.

The extensive programme of school building and remodelling to meet the needs of the growing population has enabled new educational ideas to be incorporated in the design of schools, and technical advances to be made in their construction. These include a greater use of standardised components, with a saving in cost per unit compared with individually produced items.

In order to make the most economic use of these industrialised systems, local education authorities are increasingly joining together to form building and equipment consortia with significant reductions in cost. In the late 1950s the Nottinghamshire County Council was joined by a number of other councils to form a consortium of local education authorities known as CLASP (Consortium of Local Authorities Special Programme), which won international recognition for the standard of its school design. Other consortia include the Second Consortium of Local Authorities (SCOLA) and the Consortium of Local Authorities in Wales (CLAW). Six authorities have joined in the Local Authorities School Meals Equipment Consortium (LASMEC), 19 in the Science Equipment Consortium and four in a furniture group. Altogether nearly one-half of the school-building programme is being carried out by industrialised methods.

PART II

SCOTLAND

HISTORICAL DEVELOPMENT

The ideal of a comprehensive educational system available to all capable of profiting from it was accepted in Scotland long before it was accepted in any other part of the United Kingdom. As far back as 1560, the Scottish Reformers, in the First Book of Discipline, envisaged a school in every town and a schoolmaster in every parish. The children of all, rich and poor, were to receive education 'so that the Commonwealth may have some comfort of them'. Although the Reformed Church did not have the resources to carry out this scheme, the idea persisted, and in 1696 the Scottish Parliament enacted that every parish should provide a 'commodious house for a school' and the salary for a teacher. It was, however, many years before the Act was fully carried into effect, especially in remote districts, and the extension of provision in the nineteenth century, as in England and Wales, was due largely to the efforts of the Churches and the pressures generated by the Industrial Revolution.

Acts of 1872 to 1918

The great educational landmark of nineteenth-century Scotland was the Education (Scotland) Act 1872, which transferred the work of organising and administering education from Church to people. Popularly elected School Boards, nearly 1,000 in number, were set up for all parishes and burghs (towns), with power to levy rates towards the cost of administering existing schools and to establish the additional schools necessary for providing compulsory schooling for all children between the ages of 5 and 13, and evening schools for young people over 13. The Scottish Education Department was set up to supervise the working of the new system and to administer the distribution of the parliamentary grant. As the main aim of the school at this period was regarded as the elimination of illiteracy, a child was exempted from school if he or she could read and write and show a knowledge of elementary arithmetic.

The following years saw a rapid development of education beyond the primary stage, and as early as 1878 school boards were empowered to levy rates for the upkeep of the higher class schools provided for in the Act of 1872. In 1892 a sum of money was allocated for providing secondary education and secondary education committees were set up for each county and for six of the largest urban areas to receive and distribute grants.

The Education (Scotland) Act 1883 raised the school-leaving age to 14 for all children who had not obtained from one of Her Majesty's Inspectors of Schools a certificate of ability to read and write and a knowledge of elementary arithmetic. The Education (Scotland) Act 1901 raised the school-leaving age to 14 for all children.

The Act of 1908 extended the powers of local authorities in various directions. Children in outlying parts could be conveyed to school or, if necessary, boarded nearby; pupils could be medically examined; neglectful

parents could be prosecuted where a child attended school in a dirty or verminous condition, or was unable, through lack of food or clothing, to take advantage of the education provided; and food and clothing could be provided for children in need. It became the duty of school boards to provide continuation classes for the further education of young persons over 14.

Acts of 1918–45

By the end of the first world war it was recognised that the area and resources of the parish school board were often too narrow for efficient educational provision, especially with the development of specialised forms of higher education. The Act of 1918, which made mandatory the provision of free secondary education for all children who desired it, accordingly substituted for the school boards 33 county and five urban education authorities. These were *ad hoc* elected bodies. Local interest in education was maintained by the institution of School Management Committees whose main duty was to manage the schools in their districts.

Other important changes brought about by this Act were the transfer of voluntary schools, the great majority of which were Roman Catholic or Episcopalian, to education authorities, subject to certain conditions designed to preserve their denominational character; and the framing of schemes for educational provision, both primary and secondary, for each area, and of bursary schemes to ensure that promising pupils should not be debarred from university education by the expense involved.

Authorities were empowered to provide a library service, not only for pupils under instruction but also for the adult population. They were also empowered to provide nursery schools or to aid nursery schools provided by voluntary bodies.

The Local Government (Scotland) Act 1929 abolished *ad hoc* education authorities, and the administration of education was entrusted to the county councils and to the town councils of Aberdeen, Dundee, Edinburgh and Glasgow, as education authorities for their areas.

By the Education (Scotland) Act 1936 the school-leaving age was to have been raised to 15 on 1 September 1939, subject to exemption for beneficial employment between 14 and 15, but the outbreak of war postponed this reform.

Acts of 1945–69

The 1945 Act applied to Scotland the government's policy for the development of education in Great Britain, as well as making a number of other changes which affected only the Scottish system. (The Act contains fewer innovations than the English Education Act 1944, since a number of these reforms had been established in Scotland many years earlier.) Some of the independence enjoyed by the former *ad hoc* authorities was restored to the education committees by requiring the town or county councils to delegate to the committees virtually all of their functions relating to education. The school-leaving age was to be raised to 15, at a date subsequently fixed at 1 April 1947, and was thereafter to be raised to 16 as soon as considered practicable; it is to be raised in 1972–73, at the same time as in England and Wales. The other provisions were partly new and partly revised, improved,

and extended versions of existing provisions. The enactments from 1872 to 1945 relating to education in Scotland were consolidated in the Education (Scotland) Act 1946.

The Education (Scotland) Act 1956 extended the powers of education authorities to secure the attendance of children at school and to take measures to reduce the risk of accidents to pupils.

The Education Act 1962 transferred the administration of grants to students at universities and comparable courses to the Secretary of State, and reduced to two the number of dates on which, under normal circumstances, pupils might leave school. The Education (Scotland) Act of the same year again consolidated the previous statutes.

The Education (Scotland) Act 1963 established an examination board to conduct the Scottish Certificate of Education (see p. 67) and amended the law on teachers' salary negotiations and pensions for dependants. It also empowered education authorities to co-opt teachers to the membership of education committees and altered the law relating to sub-committees for the management of further education colleges.

The Education (Scotland) Act 1969 made provision for all school education provided by education authorities to be available without the payment of fees after 1 August 1970.[1] Among other changes it revived the provisions concerning the ascertainment of handicapped pupils, providing for regular reviews for each case and explaining the rights of parents in this field; empowered education authorities to provide social and recreational facilities for all persons living in their areas; and freed the education authorities of the need to seek the Secretary of State's approval for a number of their activities, including the curriculum of schools.

Universities

Three of Scotland's universities were founded in the fifteenth century and a fourth in the sixteenth. St. Andrews (1411), Glasgow (1451) and Aberdeen (1494) were all ecclesiastical foundations. Edinburgh University (1583) owed its foundation to the town council, which controlled the university until 1858. There are now also four newly established Scottish universities. The University of Strathclyde was founded in 1964, combining two former central institutions in Glasgow, the Royal College of Science and Technology and the Scottish College of Commerce; the University of Stirling was also founded as an entirely new university in 1964 and admitted its first students in October 1967; the Heriot-Watt University (formerly a central institution) achieved university status in 1966; the fourth new university is the University of Dundee (formerly Queen's College, Dundee, a constituent college of St. Andrew's), which received its charter as an independent university in August 1967.

ADMINISTRATION AND FINANCE

Public education in Scotland, other than university education, is administered centrally by the Secretary of State for Scotland acting through the Scottish Education Department (and in the case of the School Health Service, through

[1]Following the change of government in June 1970, the Education (Scotland) Act 1971 restored education authorities' powers to charge fees in a limited number of schools.

the Scottish Home and Health Department). Locally, administration is in the hands of the 35 education authorities (as they are known) and their statutorily appointed education committees.[1]

The Secretary of State's powers in respect of schools, public education and teachers are similar to those of the Secretary of State for Education and Science. He is consulted on university matters (see p. 42). He is also responsible, unlike his English counterpart, for social work including child care and the residential establishments formerly known as approved schools. His main advisory bodies are the Advisory Council on Education in Scotland; the Scottish Consultative Committee on the Curriculum (established in 1965); the Scottish Technical Education Consultative Council[2]; the Standing Consultative Council on Youth and Community Service; and the General Teaching Council for Scotland.

The department's headquarters are in Edinburgh, but a liaison staff is maintained in London, chiefly for contact with Parliament and with other government departments.

The education authorities, as in England and Wales, are responsible for the adequate provision in their areas of all forms of school and further education, but they have rather less power than their English counterparts, since they do not control either the central institutions (regional and national colleges of technology and the arts providing most of the higher education outside the universities) or the colleges of education. They do, however, provide and maintain schools, known as public schools (see below) including denominational schools, and are also responsible for school health and welfare, as in England and Wales, and for providing grants other than grants for university and other higher education.

Independent bodies have an important position. The central institutions and colleges of education have voluntary governing bodies. Since 1965 conduct of the Scottish Certificate of Education has been in the hands of an independent body, the Scottish Certificate of Education Examining Board, and a General Teaching Council, with almost complete control over the profession, began operating in 1966 (see p. 70). Much of the residential school provision for handicapped children is made by voluntary bodies.

Finance

The financing of education is organised on a basis similar to that in England and Wales. In 1969–70 estimated public expenditure on education (including school meals and milk) amounted to £266·5 million. Expenditure on meals and milk accounted for £12 million.

SCHOOLS

Most of the 3,136 schools supported from public funds are provided and maintained by education authorities and are known as 'public' schools (the

[1]Under proposals outlined in the White Paper, *Reform of Local Government in Scotland* (Cmnd. 4583, HMSO Edinburgh, 1971), the government is planning to concentrate educational administration into the hands of eight new regional authorities.

[2]This council was disbanded in July 1971, and the Secretary of State is considering whether a new advisory body should be established to advise him on further education in general.

Scottish equivalent of the English county school, see p. 13, and not to be confused with certain English independent schools, see p. 21). Since many parts of Scotland are sparsely populated, about 15·2 per cent of these schools are small one-teacher schools.

There are 29 grant-aided 'secondary' schools as they are known in Scotland; they are comparable to direct-grant schools in England and some, like the direct-grant schools, are several hundred years old. They are conducted by voluntary managers and receive grants direct from the Scottish Education Department.

Independent schools, of which there are 110, are mostly day schools, unlike those in England and Wales. There are similar arrangements for the registration of independent schools (though not for their 'recognition as efficient').

Education authorities are permitted to charge fees in certain public schools, provided that this does not prejudice the provision of free education for all who desire it. Fees are also charged in all but two of the grant-aided secondary schools, and in one or two of them a number of places are taken up by education authorities.

In the remoter districts where daily travel to school may be impracticable, education authorities may arrange for the accommodation of pupils in hostels or lodgings.

Religious instruction in the public schools, except the denominational schools, is along lines suggested by a Joint Committee on Religious Education which is representative of the Scottish Churches, the Association of Directors of Education (the executive officers of the education authorities), the Association of County Councils and Counties of Cities in Scotland, and the Educational Institute of Scotland, which is the largest teachers' organisation. In July 1969 a committee on Moral and Religious Education was set up to review religious education in Scottish schools (other than Roman Catholic schools). In denominational schools, denominational instruction is given by teachers whose religious beliefs are approved by representatives of the Churches concerned.

The conduct of schools is governed to a greater extent than in England and Wales by regulations from the Secretary of State. The Schools (Scotland) Code deals with such matters as the size of classes,[1] classroom accommodation, and teachers' qualifications.

In some of the more remote areas children speak only Gaelic, which is still the language spoken at home by some thousands of children in the Highlands and Islands. In such districts both Gaelic and English are taught in the schools; it is usual for Gaelic gradually to give way to English as the medium of instruction as the child advances, though the Gaelic language, songs and legends are studied at all school levels.

Primary Education

At present there are a few nursery schools and classes; a modest expansion of nursery places has been initiated under the Urban Programme (see p. 16).

[1]The prescribed maxima are 20 for nursery classes, 40 for primary classes, 40 for the first three years of secondary courses, and 30 for fourth, fifth and sixth years of secondary courses.

Compulsory primary education lasts from the age of 5 till about 12 (as opposed to 11 in England and Wales).

Secondary Education

Most secondary schools take both boys and girls, but in the cities there are several schools, dating in their present form usually from the last century, for boys only or for girls only.

The principle of comprehensive secondary education has been traditional in many parts of Scotland, and was applied further after the circular of 1965, but, following the change of government, this was cancelled by a circular of July 1970 which empowered education authorities to determine themselves the form(s) of secondary school organisation to be adopted in their areas (see p. 18). In 1970 the proportion of secondary pupils in education authority schools with a fully comprehensive intake was 63·4 per cent. The schemes are generally based on six-year 'all-through' schools with four-year junior high schools in some rural areas, but there are variations in a few places to suit local circumstances.

In those areas where a selection system is in operation schools may be classified as 'senior secondary' schools providing five- or six-year certificate courses for the abler pupils and 'junior secondary' schools designed for pupils who are likely to leave at the statutory age which is 15 at present but is to be raised to 16 in 1972–73. Junior secondary schools are increasingly providing Ordinary grade certificate courses. The allocation of pupils to the secondary courses best suited to their age, ability and aptitude is the responsibility of local transfer committees composed of the head teachers of secondary schools and of the primary schools which feed them.

Subjects common to most non-certificate secondary courses are English, history, geography, arithmetic, science, art, music, religious instruction and physical education. Boys may take technical subjects and girls homecraft and/or commercial subjects. In certain areas rural and nautical subjects are also offered. The ablest pupils study foreign languages (modern and classical) and mathematics in addition to the basic subjects of the secondary curriculum.

Examinations for the single subject (see p. 24) Scottish Certificate of Education at Ordinary and Higher grades may be taken by pupils attending secondary schools, and in further education, and by students sponsored by educational authorities and other recognised bodies. In 1965, the conduct of the examinations was taken over from the Scottish Education Department by the Scottish Certificate of Education Examination Board, whose membership is drawn largely from serving teachers and educational administrators. The board is also empowered to advise the Secretary of State on examination matters.

School candidates normally attempt the Ordinary grade (equivalent to the Ordinary level of the English GCE) in the fourth year and the Higher grade (appropriate passes in which are required for admission to universities and other forms of higher education) in the fifth or sixth years of their secondary courses; many fifth-year and some sixth-year pupils take some subjects in the Higher grade and some in the Ordinary grade at one session of the examination.

At present there is no counterpart to the English Advanced level of the General Certificate of Education. In 1968 a new Certificate of Sixth Year Studies was introduced in a limited number of subjects to give direction and purpose to sixth-year work by encouraging pupils who have completed their main subjects at the Higher grade to engage in independent study in depth of a particular subject. The examination is not an alternative to the Higher grade examination and the new certificate has not been introduced with the intention that it should be regarded by universities as a formal requirement for entrance.

FURTHER EDUCATION SYSTEM

Further education is provided locally in further education centres and regionally in central institutions. On the whole, the 92 further education centres provide the part-time courses, and the full-time pre-vocational and first-year apprenticeship courses for those leaving school after only three or four years' secondary education; many of the centres also have social and recreational facilities. The 13 central institutions concentrate on full-time and sandwich courses for students who have in the main completed at least five years' secondary education and those who want professional qualifications. Much of this is classified as higher education (see p. 41).

City and Guilds of London Institute awards, the Certificate and Higher Certificate in Office Studies, National Certificates and National Diplomas (see p. 29) are available throughout Great Britain; some specifically Scottish commercial awards are administered by the Scottish Council for Commercial Administrative and Professional Education. Proposals to replace National Certificate and Diploma and City and Guilds of London Institute awards by a co-ordinated pattern of technician courses are under discussion.

As in England and Wales, the Industrial Training Boards are playing an increasing role in further education in Scotland.

Adult education is organised on much the same basis throughout Great Britain (see p. 31), but in Scotland the university extra-mural departments and the WEA are not 'responsible bodies'. There is one long-term residential college, Newbattle Abbey, Midlothian. The Scottish Institute of Adult Education acts as a co-ordinating body and centre for information.

In Scotland the organisation of youth services is similar to that in England and Wales, although they form part of the Youth and Community Service. A Standing Consultative Council on Youth Service in Scotland was set up by the Secretary of State in 1959 and reconstituted in 1964 with wider functions as the Standing Consultative Council on Youth and Community Service. There are two kinds of training for youth leaders: a two-year (soon to be three-year) basic training course and a one-year course for those with certain qualifications. The largest voluntary organisations are members of the Scottish Standing Conference of Voluntary Youth Organisations.

HIGHER EDUCATION

Scotland has a long tradition of university education and, as the Robbins Report (see p. 41) commented, has often served as a model for higher educa-

tion in the English-speaking world. Since, however, the University Grants Committee's powers extend to universities throughout Great Britain and government policy towards the universities concerns them all, Scottish universities are described with those in England and Wales (see p. 42). General developments in higher education are also described in the same section since the government's plans for expansion extend to the whole of Great Britain.

Higher Education within the Further Education System

Most of the higher education outside universities and colleges of education takes place in the 13 central institutions. These are Robert Gordon's Institute of Technology, Aberdeen; Dundee Institute of Art and Technology; Paisley College of Technology; Edinburgh College of Art; Glasgow School of Art; the Royal Scottish Academy of Music and Drama, Glasgow; Edinburgh College of Domestic Science; Glasgow and West of Scotland College of Domestic Science; Leith Nautical College; Scottish College of Textiles, Galashiels; North of Scotland College of Agriculture, Aberdeen; Edinburgh and East of Scotland College of Agriculture; West of Scotland Agricultural College. The three agricultural colleges are financed by the Department of Agriculture and Fisheries for Scotland, and the other ten by the Scottish Education Department.

Students may work for qualifications that are available throughout Great Britain such as the Higher National Certificates and Diplomas, degrees of the Council of National Academic Awards and professional qualifications (see p. 46). In addition, the central institutions award college diplomas and associateships which are recognised respectively as equivalent to ordinary and honours degrees.

In October 1970 there were 8,270 full-time and sandwich students and a further 9,440 part-time students working for higher education qualifications.

Colleges of Education

The Secretary of State, on the advice of the General Teaching Council, makes regulations on the requirements for admission to training courses in colleges of education and the length of courses is also controlled, but apart from this the colleges are very largely autonomous. They are administered by independent, voluntary governing bodies, and are financed by the Scottish Education Department.

There are ten colleges, one of which is a college of physical education; two of the colleges opened in 1964 and one in 1966. Over the last decade the system has undergone further considerable expansion and development. The student population of the colleges rose from 4,884 in 1960–61 to over 12,240 in 1970–71. This is well in advance of the programme suggested by the Robbins Report—12,000 students by 1973–74—and it is now thought that the total will exceed 14,000 by 1974–75. Courses are usually three years in length for non-graduates and one year for graduates or others with specialised qualifications. There are also four-year courses in some of the colleges which have links with a university, leading to a B.Ed. degree.

Grants
The system of awards for students in higher education is described on p. 42.

TEACHERS AND TEACHING AIDS

Teachers in schools maintained and aided by public funds, other than temporary teachers, must be registered by the General Teaching Council (GTC) following the successful completion of professional training taken at colleges of education. (Departments of Education in Scottish universities do not undertake teacher training.) The GTC was set up under the Teaching Council (Scotland) Act 1965 and registration by the council is now the mark of recognition of a qualified teacher. The council, which also advises the Secretary of State on general matters concerning teacher training, has 49 members, 30 of whom are registered teachers elected by the profession. Of the remainder, 15 are appointed by local authorities, universities, central institutions and churches, and four are nominated by the Secretary of State.

In contrast to present arrangements in England and Wales (see p. 52), all teachers in secondary schools in Scotland must be graduates or holders of an equivalent qualification and must have taken a course of teacher training. Primary school teachers must hold the Teacher's Qualification (Primary Education) which can be obtained by graduates who successfully complete a one-year course at a college of education, or by completion of a three-year course at a college of education. Secondary school teachers are required to hold the Teacher's Qualification (Secondary Education); they must be graduates or holders of an equivalent qualification and have completed a one-year course at a college of education. An equivalent qualification may be an approved diploma from a college of art, music or commerce. Slightly different arrangements are made for training in physical education, technical subjects and home economics.

There are also specialised training courses for students or teachers who wish to gain additional qualifications as infant mistresses, principal teachers of nursery schools, or teachers of blind children, physically or mentally handicapped children, or backward children in secondary schools. These are taken either immediately after the main course or as part-time summer courses.

There are national salary scales. Recommendations on salaries are made to the Secretary of State by the Scottish Joint Council for Teachers' Salaries, which represents education authorities and teachers. Because of the different qualifications required of the teachers, the salaries differ somewhat from those in England.

In 1970 there were nearly 41,000 full-time teachers in public and grant-aided schools and 3,000 part-time teachers. In Scotland, the shortage of secondary teachers is the most serious of educational problems but measures are in hand to ameliorate the situation.

Educational Broadcasting and Visual Aids
The educational programmes of the BBC and ITA are designed for the whole of the United Kingdom (see p. 53). Some BBC radio programmes and a number of BBC and ITA television series, including those of Scottish

Television Ltd. and Grampian Television Ltd., are designed and produced in Scotland, principally for Scottish needs. Closed-circuit television has been in regular use at a number of Scottish universities and medical schools for some years; and in Glasgow two universities, two colleges of education, the College of Dramatic Art and the city's schools are using it. The Glasgow local education authority television service was the first of its kind in Britain.

The use of visual aids is promoted by the Scottish Film Council, the Scottish Educational Film Association, and Educational Films of Scotland, with financial aid from the Scottish Education Department.

The Scottish Film Council, founded in 1934, co-ordinates and promotes the educational, cultural and industrial uses of films in Scotland. Its main educational work is carried out by the Scottish Central Film Library which contains a large stock of educational films for hire. The Scottish Educational Film Association, founded in 1935, is an organisation of Scottish teachers and others interested in the development of educational films. The association organises panels of lectures, arranges exhibitions of visual aids, demonstration lessons and courses in visual aids for serving teachers and college of education students, reviews films and filmstrips, makes known the requirements of teachers in respect of visual aids and makes amateur films for school use.

These two bodies co-operated to set up Educational Films of Scotland in 1948, at the request of the Secretary of State for Scotland. This organisation arranges for the production of educational films and filmstrips to meet the particular requirements of Scottish schools.

EDUCATIONAL RESEARCH

In Scotland, the Scottish Council for Research in Education is the main agent for educational research. In addition to taking direct charge of particular research projects, the council sponsors and commissions work in universities, colleges of education and schools and is prepared to make grants to persons or bodies requiring financial assistance to undertake research projects.

The Council is financed by a grant from the Scottish Education Department, which amounted to £35,000 in 1970–71, and by contributions from the education authorities and the Educational Institute of Scotland. It also receives grants for particular projects from bodies such as the Carnegie Trust and Nuffield Foundation.

The total expenditure on research by the Scottish Education Department in 1970–71 was £80,000. The department also makes an annual grant (£5,750 in 1970–71) to the National Council for Educational Technology which operates throughout the United Kingdom.

PART III

NORTHERN IRELAND

HISTORICAL DEVELOPMENT

Acts of 1923–38

When Northern Ireland became a self-governing unit of the United Kingdom in 1921, its newly constituted Ministry of Education assumed supervisory control of the educational services, which had been administered by three separate departments in Dublin dealing with elementary, intermediate (secondary) and technical education. Education in Northern Ireland was brought into a single system by the Education Act (Northern Ireland) 1923. Under this Act each county and county borough was constituted the responsible education authority for its area, and was required to exercise most of its functions through one or more education committees. Local education authorities were made responsible for helping to provide elementary, secondary and technical education, and elementary education between the ages of 5 and 14 was made compulsory. They were empowered to accept schools transferred from voluntary managers and did, in fact, acquire many elementary schools. Those remaining under voluntary management received assistance towards their maintenance from the local education authorities, and the salaries of the teachers in them were paid in full by the Ministry of Education. Secondary education remained almost entirely in voluntary hands (many grammar schools still are) but assistance was given to secondary schools from public funds. An increasing number of pupils began to attend these schools. Technical education, on the other hand, was provided almost wholly by the local education authorities.

Details of the Act of 1923 were amended by Acts of 1925 and 1930, and the Education Act of 1938 raised the school-leaving age to 15, subject to exemption for children of 14 on grounds of beneficial employment. As in Great Britain, operation of this Act was postponed owing to the outbreak of the second world war. (The age was raised to 15, without exemption, on 1 April 1947.)

Acts of 1947–70

The present educational system of Northern Ireland is based on the Education Act (Northern Ireland) 1947, which derives from the White Paper *Educational Reconstruction* (Cmd. 226) published in 1944. Some of its proposals were similar to those implemented by the English Act of 1944, but the problems involved were examined independently.

The 1947 Act lays down the organisation of the statutory system in three successive stages—primary, secondary and further education—and with the same age ranges as in England. It also imposes on the local education authorities the duty of securing that efficient education is available to meet the needs of the population of their areas. The most notable reform of this Act was the statutory provision for secondary intermediate schools (comparable to English secondary modern schools) to make possible secondary education for all.

The Education (Amendment) Act (Northern Ireland) 1968 introduced important changes in the relationship between voluntary schools and local education authorities. Under the Act a new category of voluntary schools was created called 'maintained schools'. These are voluntary primary, secondary (intermediate) and special schools having a one-third proportion of local education authority nominees on their school governing bodies, and they qualify for grant at the rate of 80 per cent (instead of the previous 65 per cent) towards the cost of approved building or alterations. Local education authorities are responsible for the maintenance and equipment of such schools. The 80 per cent building grant is also payable to voluntary grammar schools which accept on their governing bodies a one-third proportion of members appointed by the Minister of Education.

The Universities

Queen's College was founded in 1845, and became the Queen's University of Belfast in 1908 as a result of the passing of the Irish Universities Act.

The New University of Ulster at Coleraine, County Londonderry, received a Royal Charter in 1970. At the same time Magee University College, Londonderry, founded in 1865, was incorporated in the New University.

ADMINISTRATION AND FINANCE

Education is one of the services for which the minister concerned is responsible to the Parliament of Northern Ireland and for which finance is voted by this Parliament. It is administered centrally by the Ministry of Education and locally by eight education authorities; the system is broadly comparable to that in England and Wales.

Changes in local administration of education are envisaged in the near future and it is expected that the eight existing local education authorities will be replaced by a smaller number of area boards (five). The functions of the boards will be broadly similar to those of the local education authorities, but will be extended to include functions in relation to public libraries at present performed by local authorities. The constitutions of the boards will differ from those of the present local education and library authorities and will provide for the inclusion of wider interests in the education and library fields.

University relations with the government are conducted through the Ministry of Education. The University Grants Committee acts in an advisory capacity to the ministry; it is not itself the channel of communication, as in Great Britain.

The total cost to public funds of the education service amounted to £60 million in 1969–70; school meals and milk cost an additional £4·3 million.

SCHOOLS

The schools managed by local education authorities are known as 'county' schools and those managed by voluntary bodies or individuals as 'voluntary' schools: these latter are grant-aided by the government.

In 1969–70 there were 22 nursery schools, 643 county and 613 voluntary primary schools, some grammar school preparatory departments (both county

and voluntary) and a few private schools. Secondary schools were of three types: grammar (21 county and 60 voluntary), secondary (intermediate) (85 county, 83 voluntary), and technical (intermediate)[1] (17, all under local authority management). By January 1970, following the Education (Amendment) Act (Northern Ireland) 1968 (see p. 73), 200 of the 613 voluntary primary schools had become maintained schools, 47 of the 60 voluntary grammar schools had entered into agreements with the Ministry of Education and 64 of the 83 voluntary secondary (intermediate) schools had become maintained schools.

There are 24 special schools and a very few private schools. Local education authorities' health and welfare arrangements are similar to those in England and Wales.

Fees are not charged at primary, secondary (intermediate) or technical (intermediate) schools. They are charged at preparatory departments at rates approved by the ministry, and also at grammar schools where, however, qualified pupils receive scholarships from their local education authority which cover the whole or most of the fees charged by the schools. Boarding scholarships are awarded to grammar school pupils living in isolated districts.

Religious instruction is given in all county and voluntary schools. In county schools it is non-denominational, but clergy have rights of access similar to those in England and Wales. At voluntary schools the nature of religious instruction is at the discretion of the managers, but clergy have rights of access to certain voluntary schools.

Examinations

The provision of examinations leading to the award of the General Certificate of Education (GCE) and the Certificate of Secondary Education (CSE) is the responsibility of the Northern Ireland Schools Examinations Council. The council arranges for the conduct of these examinations through the Northern Ireland GCE Board and the Northern Ireland CSE Board respectively. The GCE examinations have been in operation in Northern Ireland since 1963 and their standard is recognised as equivalent at both Ordinary and Advanced levels to that of the other GCE boards in the United Kingdom. The examinations are open to pupils from grammar and other types of secondary schools and from institutions of further education. The first Northern Ireland CSE examinations have not yet been held but the CSE board is at present preparing for their introduction in 1973. The only examination for pupils receiving secondary education now conducted by the Ministry of Education is the Northern Ireland Junior Certificate Examination. This is taken at about the age of 15, normally at the end of a three-year course, but it will be discontinued after the examinations held in 1971. In all these examinations candidates may enter for one or more subjects.

FURTHER EDUCATION

Statutory responsibility for providing further education rests upon the local education authorities; they are, however, enjoined by the Act to have regard

[1] Recruitment to technical (intermediate) schools has almost ceased and much of their work is now undertaken by secondary (intermediate) schools.

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to any facilities for further education provided by other bodies in their areas and they may co-operate with any of these bodies and assist them financially.

In 1969–70 there were 31 colleges organised by the local education authorities providing a wide variety of further education courses, both part-time and full-time, including four central institutions similar to those in Scotland (the Belfast Colleges of Technology, Art and Design, Domestic Science and Business Studies). In addition, there were 159 out-centres providing part-time courses. During the year ended 31 July 1970, there were about 62,394 student enrolments in the further education institutions, including 11,748 for full-time and sandwich courses, 11,913 for part-time day courses and 11,063 for vocational evening courses. The remainder were on recreational courses (see below). The colleges provide a wide variety of vocational and recreational courses and full-time students up to the age of 18 may be exempt from fees and receive free books and materials and, where necessary, travelling expenses or assistance with board and lodging.

The colleges offer courses leading to qualifications similar to those obtainable at institutions in Great Britain and more than 140 courses of the City and Guilds of London Institute are in operation as well as National Certificate and Diploma courses in mechanical, electrical and electronic aeronautical production, civil and chemical engineering, applied biology, building, business studies, chemistry, mathematics, statistics and computing, medical laboratory subjects, nautical science, naval architecture, applied physics, sciences and textiles. Following the establishment of industrial training boards in Northern Ireland the institutions of further education are co-operating in the provision of the necessary industrial training as well as the further education required by the various boards.

The Belfast Colleges of Domestic Science and of Art and Design and the advanced work in the Belfast College of Technology are being transferred to the new Ulster College (see p. 76) and will become part of the provision for higher as distinct from further education.

Adult Education

The organisation of adult education is basically the same as in England and Wales. Most recreational courses are provided by local education authorities and in 1969–70 there were about 27,670 students on these courses. Classes of a more academic nature are conducted under the auspices of the Queen's University Department of Extra-Mural Studies, the New University of Ulster Adult Education Department and the Workers Educational Association. Over 5,800 students took part in these adult education courses in 1969–70.

The Youth Service

The Youth Service in Northern Ireland as elsewhere in the United Kingdom is based on a partnership of central government, local education authorities and voluntary bodies. The Youth Welfare, Physical Training and Recreation Act (Northern Ireland) 1962 set up a Youth and Sports Council to supersede the Youth Committee established in 1944 which advises on policy, carries out surveys, and makes recommendations to the ministry on applications for

grants from local authorities and voluntary bodies on the provision of facilities for youth welfare and recreation.

In the White Paper, *Development of the Youth Service in Northern Ireland*, published in 1961, the ministry encouraged local education authorities to take an active part in the development of the service, and drew attention to the need for each local education authority to have an officer charged with special responsibility for youth work. Since then the local education authorities have increasingly taken part both in the direct provision and management of youth facilities, whether connected with schools or otherwise, and in the services which they provide for the many voluntary organisations. Under the Northern Ireland Development Programme 1970–1975 greater priority is being given to the provision of social and recreational facilities, especially in the major urban areas of Belfast and Londonderry and in the growth centres, and a special programme of work estimated to cost nearly £6 million, in addition to the normal Ministry of Education programme, has been drawn up and is being implemented.

HIGHER EDUCATION

As in Great Britain, higher education is expanding. The Northern Ireland Government accepted most of the recommendations[1] put forward in 1965 by the Committee on Higher Education in Northern Ireland, under the late Sir John Lockwood's chairmanship, and agreed to provide between 8,000 and 9,000 full-time university places by 1973–74, and to establish a second university, now known as the New University of Ulster, at Coleraine.

Between 1959 and 1969 nearly £16 million was spent on university building projects and further expansion is planned. Recurrent expenditure in 1969–70 was estimated at £3·25 million. Government grants are made by the Ministry of Education on the advice of the University Grants Committee (see p. 42). There was a total of 7,774 students (6,866 full-time and 908 part-time) at the two universities in 1969–70.

Higher education outside the universities is mainly centred on the new Ulster College, envisaged by the Lockwood committee as an association of colleges of technology, commerce and management, art, domestic science and physical education. Technological education outside the universities is largely provided by the Belfast College of Technology and will become the responsibility of the Ulster College. The Governors of the Ulster College took over the responsibility for the existing colleges of art, domestic science and physical education on 1 April 1971; building work has begun on the college of technology.

The government also accepted the Lockwood committee's proposal for teacher training. An education centre for graduate and non-graduate teachers has been established within the New University and the general teacher-training colleges have been re-named colleges of education and brought into the Queen's University Institute of Education.

There are three general colleges of education. In addition there are the Ulster College of Physical Education, the Ulster College of Art and Design

[1] *Higher Education in Northern Ireland*, Cmd. 475, HMSO Belfast, 1965, £1·00.

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and the Belfast College of Domestic Science, which offer specialised teacher-training courses, and which have now been incorporated in the Ulster College. There is a Department of Education at Queen's University, Belfast, and a School of Education in the New University of Ulster.

University and further education scholarships are awarded by local education authorities, and postgraduate awards and teacher-training scholarships by the Ministry of Education, the conditions of award being the same as those for Great Britain.

TEACHERS AND TEACHING AIDS

There are arrangements similar to those in England and Wales for the qualifications of teachers. Recommendations on salaries are made to the Minister of Education by the Standing Committee on Teachers' Salaries, consisting of representatives of teachers and local employers.

Teachers' pensions are governed by the Teachers' (Superannuation) Acts (Northern Ireland) 1950–63.

In 1969–70 there were 14,249 full-time school teachers and 529 part-time teachers.

Educational Broadcasting

Over 1,000 schools use BBC radio broadcasts and BBC and ITA television series (see p. 53). The BBC has pioneered four radio series for schools in Northern Ireland. One is a general 'miscellany'-type series for children of 10–13; and the other three are series for secondary schools. One of the latter, on modern Irish history for children of 14–15, has made a marked impact on the teaching of this subject in schools in Northern Ireland; the other two series are concerned with community relations, and Irish geography. A BBC television service for Northern Ireland schools is now well established. Ulster Television provides a series on the local environment and also transmits educational programmes for schools which are made for the ITA national network by other independent television companies. Schools and youth organisations may borrow films from the Northern Ireland Educational Film Library, which is controlled by the Association of Northern Ireland Education Committees.

PART IV

INTERNATIONAL RELATIONS

THERE ARE many opportunities for overseas students to study in Britain and for British students to study abroad. British teachers are encouraged to serve overseas for a period.[1]

OVERSEAS STUDENTS IN BRITAIN

Students come to Britain from countries throughout the world to study in universities or other educational institutions or for professional training. In 1969–70 there were over 74,000 such students of whom about 24 per cent were at universities, where they represent about 7 per cent of the full-time student total; another 21 per cent were at technical colleges, while the remainder were training as teachers, doctors and nurses, for the law, or in other professions. About two-thirds of all overseas students were from the Commonwealth.

A wide range of public and private fellowships and scholarships for advanced study in Britain are awarded annually to students and research workers from other Commonwealth countries. Under the Commonwealth Scholarships and Fellowship Plan, the governments of certain Commonwealth countries have made awards available at their own institutions of higher education to men and women from other Commonwealth countries. The British Government allocated nearly £3·5 million for the five-year period 1960–65 to enable an average of 500 of these scholarships to be held in Britain at any time; and for some 500 teachers and others to train in Britain under the Commonwealth Bursary Scheme. In the academic year 1969–70 the total number of scholars and fellows rose to over 600, as a result of Britain's offer of increased help at the Commonwealth Medical Conference in 1965, and the Education Conference at Lagos in 1968. The total number of teacher-training bursars rose to 550. An example of smaller government schemes is the Athlone Fellowship Scheme, under which about 40 fellowships a year are awarded to Canadian engineering graduates for up to two years' further study, training and research in institutions or industries in Britain.

About 500 British Council[2] scholarships, tenable usually for one year

[1]For further information see COI reference paper *Britain and the Developing Countries: Education*, R5802.

[2]The purpose of the *British Council* (founded in 1934) is defined in its Royal Charter as the promotion of a wider knowledge of the United Kingdom and the English language abroad and the development of closer cultural relations between Britain and other countries. The council is governed by an executive committee consisting of the chairman, 20 other elected members and 8 members nominated by ministers. It is financed almost entirely from public funds. The activities of the council, which has staff in some 75 overseas countries, are concerned with English language teaching and other educational work, fostering personal contacts between British and overseas people, especially in the educational, professional and scientific fields, running, or helping to maintain, libraries of British books and periodicals overseas, and presenting overseas the best in British arts. Its work in Britain is concerned mainly with professional visitors and with the welfare of overseas students.

in Britain, are offered annually to graduates of overseas universities. Twenty-four Marshall Scholarships for two years' study at any university in Britain are offered annually by the British Government to graduates from the United States of America, and over 60 Rhodes Scholarships are awarded annually to graduates from the Commonwealth, Germany, South Africa and the United States for two years of study at the University of Oxford. Other universities and colleges themselves offer many scholarships for which graduate students of any nationality are eligible.[1]

Fellowships and training awards for study in British institutions are available under the Central Treaty Organisation, the Colombo Plan, the Special Commonwealth African Assistance Plan (SCAAP) and British technical assistance programmes for many other countries. More trainees have come to Britain under the Colombo Plan than under any other regional programme. Since it started in 1951 up to the end of December 1969 over 10,000 men and women from Asian countries had been brought to Britain for training in a great variety of technical skills and professions. In 1969 about 928 new places were provided; 1,063 Asian students and trainees were on courses under the plan at the end of December 1969. The SCAAP regional programme is second only to the Colombo Plan in the number of new training places provided in Britain. Since it started in 1960, over 4,020 students had been brought to Britain for training (up to 31 December 1969) in a great number of subjects. During 1969 over 980 training places were provided and 1,001 students and trainees were on courses under the plan at the end of December 1969. In the year 1969 over 6,270 students and trainees from Africa, the Caribbean, Latin America, Asia, the Middle East and the Far East arrived in Britain for courses paid for from public funds under other regional programmes of technical assistance administered by the Foreign and Commonwealth Office Overseas Development Administration (ODA), such as the United Nations Programmes of Technical Assistance.

The British Council provides, through its headquarters and area offices, administrative and welfare offices in respect of awards for British Technical Study Fellows, UN Fellows and Commonwealth Scholars, Fellows and Bursars.

The Commonwealth Education Liaison Committee, set up after the first Commonwealth Education Conference in Oxford in 1959, supplements normal direct dealings on education between the countries of the Commonwealth. Further Commonwealth Education Conferences were held at New Delhi in 1962, at Ottawa in 1964, at Lagos in 1968, and at Canberra in 1971. The sixth will be held in Jamaica in 1974.

Arrangements for Overseas Students

Overseas students in British universities and other institutions of higher education and training are in general treated on the same footing as their local British colleagues and are subject to the same regulations and conditions. In a number of cases, the students' own national representatives

[1]The Association of Commonwealth Universities publishes every two years a list of post-graduate awards tenable at universities in Britain, and awards at overseas universities for which British students are eligible; it is entitled *United Kingdom Postgraduate Awards* (see Reading List).

in London (High Commissions or Embassies) accept certain special responsibilities in relation to their students. The British Council acts as agent for the overseas Departments of State in matters affecting overseas students' welfare generally and, by agreement with various overseas governments, provides certain specific services (meeting on arrival and an accommodation bureau) for the students. A number of voluntary organisations and individuals also assist in looking after the students' welfare.

British Students Overseas

For many years the United States has offered awards for British students, the best known being the Fulbright travel grants for postgraduate study at American universities. Notable among the more recently established scholarships are the Kennedy scholarships, to enable British students to study at three American universities, and the Churchill travel scholarships, for men and women in all walks of life. British students are also offered scholarships (mostly for one academic year) at institutions of higher education in 22 European countries, and Afghanistan, Brazil, Chile, Iran, Israel, Japan, South Africa, Thailand and Vietnam.

The Study and Serve scheme, started in 1964, is designed to enable British graduates to continue their studies at universities in developing countries, on condition that they agree to undertake at least a year's service in approved employment in the country providing the study arrangements. There are 59 students studying overseas under this scheme, 31 of them at universities in Africa.

TEACHERS SERVING OVERSEAS

About 1,900 teachers were recruited in Britain in 1970 for posts in schools, teacher-training colleges, technical colleges and universities in the developing countries; of these at least 1,500 went to Commonwealth countries. In 1960 the government set up a National Council for the Supply of Teachers Overseas to encourage school teachers to serve for a period overseas. The council introduced a series of measures to safe-guard their interests both while abroad and on their return home. Recruitment is carried out by the ODA, the Council for Technical Education and Training Overseas, the British Council and the voluntary teacher recruiting agencies such as the Overseas Appointments Bureau and Catholic Overseas Appointments.

There are about 1,000 British university teachers serving in developing countries, most of them recruited through the Inter-University Council on Higher Education Overseas (IUC) or the British Council. These teachers are all financed by the British Government under various aid schemes. The IUC also administers, for example, a number of schemes designed to enable British universities to help to meet staff shortages in overseas universities associated with the IUC. In addition it makes a number of Special Commonwealth Awards to leading scholars from British universities who are willing to work for a minimum of two years in important posts in the universities of developing Commonwealth countries.

Outside these schemes an increasing number of graduate and qualified volunteers are being sent overseas for one or two years, a large number to

teach; there were nearly 2,000 under the 1970–71 programme. Volunteers are recruited under a scheme administered by Voluntary Service Overseas, International Voluntary Service, the United Nations Association, and the Catholic Institute for International Relations. These societies are members of the organising committee for the British Volunteer Programme, which co-ordinates their work in sending out graduate and professionally qualified volunteers and maintains contact with universities, colleges, industry and commerce in order to encourage qualified people to volunteer for service abroad. Its members also include representatives of the ODA, the British Council (which helps to administer the scheme overseas), the National Council of Social Service (which provides the secretariat), Christian Aid, Oxfam, the Overseas Development Institute, commerce, and university appointments boards. The ODA pays three-quarters of the recruiting and associated costs which include the cost of travelling by volunteers to and from the overseas countries. The remaining costs are met by the voluntary societies. Local costs are normally the responsibility of the host government.

Interchange schemes, under which teachers in Britain exchange posts for a year with teachers overseas, include one with the United States and another with Commonwealth countries, under which each year over 100 British teachers exchange posts with teachers from Canada, Australia and New Zealand. Official exchange schemes also operate between Britain and several European countries, both for teachers and for temporary assistants' posts for language specialists.

OTHER EDUCATIONAL AID

Britain provides, on request, assistance to the developing countries in several other ways, including the loan of educational experts for technical and consultant services and specialist missions, through various educational organisations and the ODA. Financial assistance is given for building and equipping educational institutions; recent examples include the £1 million grant for the University of Zambia and a £1·25 million grant to the University of the South Pacific, Fiji. Presentations of selected books and periodicals are made to the libraries of universities and other institutions.

1. COMPARATIVE TABLE

	1960				1970			
	England and Wales	Scotland	Northern Ireland	United Kingdom	England and Wales	Scotland	Northern Ireland	United Kingdom
Total school population (Jan.)[a]	7,619,814	900,082	281,712	8,801,608	8,597,451	990,925	343,610	9,931,986
Total number of students in further education (Oct.–Nov.)[b]	2,195,400	274,182	35,512	2,505,094	3,082,555	357,144	62,394	3,502,093
Total number of students in teacher training (Oct.–Dec.)[c]	36,874	5,233	1,616	43,723	119,890	12,715	2,804	135,409
Total number of university students (Dec.):								
Full time	89,170	18,529	3,319	111,018	184,304[d]	35,202[d]	6,866[d]	226,372
Part time	13,699	4,132	352	18,183	19,150[d]	4,553[d]	908[d]	24,611
Full-time teachers in maintained and aided schools (Jan.)[e]	275,649	38,367	9,997	324,013	334,400	40,727	14,213	389,340
Number of school places completed since 1947[f] ..	2,810,000	443,128	108,100	3,361,228	5,627,650	978,990	225,190	6,861,830
Estimated expenditure on education from public funds[g]	£761·4 m.	£97·1 m.	£18·3 m.	£876·8 m.	£1,979·5 m.	£266·5 m.	£64·3 m.	£2,310·3 m.

[a]Includes independent schools in England, Wales and Scotland, but excludes independent schools in Northern Ireland.
[b]Grant-aided establishments including evening institutes (1960 and 1969 figures).
[c]Includes university departments of education and art-training centres.
[d]December 1969.
[e]Primary and secondary schools, including nursery schools and special schools.
[f]Scotland from 1946 and Northern Ireland from 1948.
[g]Financial years 1959–60 and 1969–70, and excluding loan charges.

2. SCHOOLS, PUPILS AND TEACHERS

A. England and Wales

January 1970

	Schools or departments	Full-time pupils[b]	Teachers	
			Full time	Part time[c]
Schools maintained by local education authorities				
Primary schools[a]	23,029	4,903,182	168,050	11,426
Middle schools	136	46,241	1,951	166
Secondary schools				
Modern	2,691	1,226,619	60,355	4,904
Grammar	1,038	604,916	33,948	2,992
Technical	82	43,700	2,501	218
Comprehensive	1,145	937,152	49,303	4,429
All other secondary	324	197,038	9,942	1,044
All secondary schools	5,280	3,009,425	156,049	13,587
Nursery	482	16,441	1,279	28
Special (other than hospital)	788	75,066	6,589	355
Special (hospital)	80	2,866	381	15
Immigrant centres[d]	15	1,346	101	21
All maintained schools	29,810	8,054,567	334,400	25,598
Direct grant schools ..				
Nursery	15	465	39	—
Grammar	178	118,659	6,753	403
Special	118	8,915	1,025	58
Institution and technical	4	1,057	70	1
All direct grant schools ..	315	129,096	7,887	462
Independent schools recognised as efficient				
Nursery	11	199	22	11
Primary	731	95,170	6,443	941
Secondary	299	80,923	6,754	636
Primary and secondary	383	127,685	7,965	1,217
All recognised independent schools	1,424	303,977	21,184	2,805
Other independent schools				
Nursery	81	1,816	166	59
Primary	907	66,441	3,800	990
Secondary	114	8,536	677	163
Primary and secondary	249	33,018	1,908	538
All other independent schools ..	1,351	109,811	6,551	1,750
All schools	32,900	8,597,451	370,022	30,615

Source: *Statistics of Education 1970. Vol. I: Schools.* Department of Education and Science.

[a] Includes first schools for children aged from 5 to 8, 9, or 10. These are the first stage of a three-tier school system (see p. 18).
[b] There are also 60,707 part-time pupils.
[c] Full-time equivalent.
[d] Immigrant centres provide courses in basic language tuition for children newly arrived from abroad before they enrol in ordinary schools.

B. Scotland *January 1970*

	Schools or departments	Pupils	Teachers (full-time)
Public and grant-aided schools			
Primary	2,553	631,181	20,651
Secondary	573	317,027	18,829
Nursery	185	10,647	186
Special (including occupational centres)	222	12,190	1,061
	3,533	971,045	40,727
Independent schools	110	19,380	1,480
Total	3,643	990,925	42,207

Source: *Scottish Educational Statistics 1970.*

C. Northern Ireland *January 1970*

	Schools or departments	Pupils	Teachers	
			Full time	Part time[a]
Grant-aided schools				
Primary				
Nursery	22	861	32	—
Primary	1,256	208,002	7,136	3
Preparatory departments of grammar schools	(41)	5,683	219	13
Secondary				
Intermediate	168	80,876	4,121	74
Technical (intermediate)	17	905	50	—
Grammar	81	45,135	2,460	105
Special	24	2,148	195	2
Total	1,568	343,610	14,213	197
Independent schools[b]	8	666	36	8

Source: *Northern Ireland Education Statistics No. 11*, January 1971.

[a]Full-time equivalent.

[b]Schools registered under Education Act (Northern Ireland) 1947.

.3 FURTHER EDUCATION[a]

A. England and Wales

November 1969

	No. of establishments	Students						
		Full-time courses	Short full-time courses	Sandwich courses	Day-release courses	Other part-time day courses	Evening only courses	All courses
Grant-aided establishments								
National colleges[b] ..	4	572	—	261	—	114	239	1,186
Polytechnics[c]	8	10,391	609	6,395	13,938	762	8,981	41,076
Regional colleges ..	20	13,786	893	9,638	22,520	1,628	16,572	65,037
Art establishments[d] ..	125	24,166	135	277	15,992	20,414	41,113	102,097
Agricultural colleges ..	4	1,304	7	94	—	—	—	1,405
Farm institutes ..	41	2,579	63	378	5,887	1,213	3,258	13,378
Other major establishments								
Maintained and assisted	483	162,184	9,673	16,434	586,167	86,699	641,997	1,503,154
Direct grant	13	396	927	63	768	—	516	2,670
Evening institutes ..	6,895	—	—	—	—	—	1,352,552	1,352,552
All grant-aided establishments	7,593	215,378	12,307	33,540	645,272	110,830	2,065,228	3,082,555
Independent establishments recognised as efficient								
Teaching English to foreign students ..	44	6,526	—	—	—	2,561	—	9,087
Other	54	6,622	—	—	—	999	—	7,621
All recognised independent establishments	98	13,148	—	—	—	3,560	—	16,708
All establishments ..	7,691	228,526	12,307	33,540	645,272	114,390	2,065,228	3,099,263

Source: *Statistics of Education 1969. Vol. III: Further Education.* Department of Education and Science.

[a]Excluding residential colleges of adult education, independent establishments not recognised as efficient, and adult education provided by responsible bodies.

[b]Including the College of Aeronautics and its associated institutions at Cranfield with 330 postgraduate students on full-time courses.

[c]Eight of the proposed 30 polytechnics had been designated by November 1969. A further 20 have since been designated and have been formed mainly from the regional colleges, and some other major establishments.

[d]Includes the Royal College of Art with 548 students on full-time courses.

B. Scotland *1969–70*

	Number of establishments	Students		
		Vocational		Non-vocational
		Full time	Part time	
Central institutions	13	7,494	3,275	2,448
Further education colleges ..	1,151	17,234	142,459	184,234
Total	1,164	24,728	145,734	186,682

Source: Scottish Education Department.

C. Northern Ireland *1969–70*

	Number of establishments	Students	
		Vocational	Non-vocational
Central institutions of further education	31	34,724[a]	27,670
Further education out-centres	159		
Total	190	34,724	27,670

Source: Ministry of Education, Northern Ireland.

[a]Includes 22,976 part-time students.

4. TRAINING OF TEACHERS *1969*

	England and Wales	Scotland	Northern Ireland
Number of training establishments			
Maintained by local authorities	125	—	4
Maintained by voluntary bodies	53	—	2
Maintained by universities	33	—	2
Maintained by central government	—	10	2
Total	211	10	10
Number of students	116,277[a]	12,573	2,726
Full-time teaching staff	10,736[b]	1,030	226

Source: Education Departments.

[a]Including foreign students taking courses organised by institutes of education.

[b]Excluding university departments of education, art-training centres and other establishments.

5. UNIVERSITIES

December 1969

University or college	Full-time students		
	Men	Women	Total
Aston	2,620	289	2,909
Bath	1,649	309	1,958
Birmingham	4,475	2,119	6,594
Bradford	2,806	506	3,312
Bristol	4,012	2,195	6,207
Brunel	1,447	243	1,690
Cambridge	9,067	1,300	10,367
City	2,230	184	2,414
Durham	2,260	1,103	3,363
East Anglia	1,507	944	2,451
Essex	1,230	461	1,691
Exeter	2,023	1,256	3,279
Hull	2,429	1,406	3,835
Keele	1,125	692	1,817
Kent	1,381	791	2,172
Lancaster	1,593	740	2,333
Leeds	6,238	2,576	8,814
Leicester	1,857	1,399	3,256
Liverpool	4,694	1,859	6,553
London Graduate School of Business Studies	96	—	96
London University	22,505	9,182	31,687
Loughborough	2,176	188	2,364
Manchester Business School	76	3	79
Manchester University	5,402	2,727	8,129
Manchester Institute of Science and Technology	2,969	303	3,272
Newcastle	3,966	1,646	5,612
Nottingham	3,416	1,665	5,081
Oxford	8,775	2,059	10,834
Reading	3,050	1,804	4,854
Salford	3,066	309	3,375
Sheffield	4,072	1,557	5,629
Southampton	3,121	1,200	4,321
Surrey	1,771	578	2,349
Sussex	2,533	1,149	3,682
Warwick	1,175	618	1,793
York	1,249	938	2,187
Total England	124,061	46,298	170,359
Aberystwyth University College	1,506	895	2,401
Bangor University College	1,541	841	2,382
Cardiff University College	2,110	1,194	3,304
St. David's, Lampeter	225	81	306
Swansea University College	2,274	1,136	3,410
Welsh National School of Medicine	279	75	354
University of Wales Institute of Science and Technology	1,572	216	1,788
Total Wales	9,507	4,438	13,945
Aberdeen	3,324	1,943	5,267
Dundee	1,831	593	2,424
Edinburgh	5,734	3,466	9,200
Glasgow	5,354	2,460	7,814
Heriot-Watt	2,209	252	2,461
St. Andrews	1,408	970	2,378
Stirling	331	274	605
Strathclyde	4,010	1,043	5,053
Total Scotland	24,201	11,001	35,202
Queen's University, Belfast	4,199	1,765	5,964
University of Ulster, Coleraine	477	425	902
Total Northern Ireland	4,676	2,190	6,866
Total United Kingdom	162,445	63,927	226,372

Source: *Statistics of Education 1969. Vol. VI: Universities.*

APPENDIX 2

GOVERNMENT DEPARTMENTS AND EDUCATIONAL ORGANISATIONS

Government Departments and Official Bodies

Department of Education and Science, Curzon Street, London W1Y 8AA.
Welsh Education Office, 31 Cathedral Road, Cardiff CF1 9UJ.
Scottish Education Department, St. Andrew's House, Edinburgh EH1 3DB.
Ministry of Education, Northern Ireland, Rathgael House, Balloo Road, Bangor, County Down.
Department of Employment, 8 St. James's Square, London SW1Y 4JB.
Foreign and Commonwealth Office Overseas Development Administration, Eland House, Stag Place, London SW1E 5DH.
Arts Council of Great Britain, 105 Piccadilly, London W1V 0AU.
British Council, 65 Davies Street, London W1Y 2AA.
University Grants Committee, 14 Park Crescent, London W1N 4DH.

Local Authorities' Organisations

Association of Education Committees, 10 Queen Anne Street, London W1M 0AE.
Association of Municipal Corporations, 36 Old Queen Street, London SW1.
County Councils' Association, 66A Eaton Square, London SW1W 9BH.
Welsh Joint Education Committee, 30 Cathedral Road, Cardiff CF1 9YH.

Professional Bodies

Association of Assistant Mistresses in Secondary Schools
Incorporated Association of Assistant Masters in Secondary Schools
Incorporated Association of Head Masters
Association of Head Mistresses
} 'The Joint Four', 29 Gordon Square London WC1 0PP.

Association of Principals of Technical Institutions, c/o St. Alban's College of Further Education, 29 Hatfield Road, St. Albans, Herts.
Association of Teachers in Colleges and Departments of Education, 151 Gower Street, London WC1E 6BA.
Association of Teachers in Technical Institutions, Hamilton House, Mabledon Place, London WC1H 9BH.
Association of University Teachers, Bremar House, 27 Sale Place, London W2 1PS.
Educational Institute of Scotland, 46/48 Moray Place, Edinburgh EH3 6BQ.
National Association of Head Teachers, 41–43 Boltro Road, Haywards Heath, Sussex.
National Association of Schoolmasters, Swan Court, Waterhouse Street, Hemel Hempstead, Herts.
National Union of Teachers, Hamilton House, Mabledon Place, London WC1H 9BH.
Ulster Teachers' Union, 72 High Street, Belfast BT1 2BE.

Other Organisations

Advisory Centre for Education, 57 Russell Street, Cambridge CB2 1HU.
Association of British Correspondence Colleges, 4/7 Chiswell Street, London EC1Y 4UP.
Association of Governing Bodies of Girls' Public Schools, 251 Brompton Road, London SW3 2EX.

Association of Governing Bodies of Public Schools (*Boys*), West Road, West Hill, Harrow-on-the-Hill, Middlesex HA2 0JQ.
Association of Commonwealth Universities, 36 Gordon Square, London WC1H 0PF.
Association of Recognised English Language Schools, 43 Russell Square, London WC1B 5DH.
British Broadcasting Corporation, Portland Place, London W1A 1AA.
Careers Research and Advisory Centre, Bateman Street, Cambridge CB2 1LZ.
Catholic Education Council, 41 Cromwell Road, London SW7 2DJ.
Central Bureau for Educational Visits and Exchanges, 91 Victoria Street, London SW1H 0HU.
Confederation for the Advancement of State Education, 81 Rustlings Road, Sheffield, S11 7AB.
Council for Educational Advance, Hamilton House, Mabledon Place, London WC1H 9BH.
Council for National Academic Awards, 3 Devonshire Street, London W1N 2BA.
Educational Interchange Council, 43 Russell Square, London WC1B 5DG.
Headmasters' Conference, 29 Gordon Square, London WC1H 0PP.
Independent Television Authority, 70 Brompton Road, London SW3 1EY.
National Committee for Audio-Visual Aids in Education, 33 Queen Anne Street, London W1M 9FB.
National Council for Diplomas in Art and Design, 16 Park Crescent, London W1N 4DN.
National Council for Educational Technology, 160 Great Portland Street, London W1N 6LL.
National Extension College, 8 Shaftesbury Road, Cambridge CB2 2BP.
National Federation of Community Associations, 26 Bedford Square, London WC1B 3HH.
National Federation of Parent-Teacher Associations, Garnham House, 189 Stoke Newington High Street, London N16 0LH.
National Foundation for Educational Research in England and Wales, The Mere, Upton Park, Slough SL1 2DQ.
National Froebel Foundation, 2 Manchester Square, London W1M 5RF.
National Institute of Adult Education, 35 Queen Anne Street, London W1M 0BL.
Nuffield Foundation, Nuffield Lodge, Regent's Park, London NW1 4RS.
Nursery School Association of Great Britain and Northern Ireland, 89 Stamford Street, London SE1 9ND.
Pre-School Playgroups Association, 87A Borough High Street, London SE1 1NH.
Schools Council, 160 Great Portland Street, London W1N 6LL.
Schools Council Committee for Wales, 129 Cathedral Road, Cardiff CF1 9PJ.
Scottish Council for Research in Education, 46 Moray Place, Edinburgh EH3 6BQ.
Standing Conference of National Voluntary Youth Organisations, 26 Bedford Square, London WC1B 3HH.
Universities Central Council on Admissions, PO Box 28, Cheltenham, Gloucestershire GL50 1HY.

READING LIST

1. OFFICIAL PUBLICATIONS

(*Published by Her Majesty's Stationery Office except where otherwise indicated*)

PRINCIPAL ACTS

	£
England and Wales	
Education Act 1944.	0·45
Education Act 1946.	0·07½
Education (Miscellaneous Provisions) Act 1948.	0·10
Education (Miscellaneous Provisions) Act 1953.	0·10
Education Act 1959.	0·02½
Education Act 1962.	0·06
Education Act 1964.	0·02
Education Act 1967.	0·03½
Education Act 1968.	0·09
Education (No. 2) Act 1968.	0·04
Education (Milk) Act 1971.	0·05
Scotland	
Education (Scotland) Act 1962. (A consolidating Act.)	0·35
Education (Scotland) Act 1963.	0·03½
Education (Scotland) Act 1965.	0·01
Teaching Council (Scotland) Act 1965.	0·10
Education (Scotland) Act 1969.	0·27½
Education (Scotland) Act 1971.	0·07½
Northern Ireland	
Education Act (Northern Ireland) 1947, reprinted with amendments to 1963. *HMSO Belfast*	0·35
Education (Amendment) Act (Northern Ireland) 1968. *HMSO Belfast*	0·10
Ulster College Act (Northern Ireland) 1968. *HMSO Belfast*	0·10

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Annual Reports and Statistics:		
Department of Education and Science for England and Wales:		
Education and Science in 1970.	1971	0·60
Statistics of Education:		
Vol. I (1969): Schools.	1970	1·70
Vol. II (1969): School Leavers, GCE and CSE.	1971	1·60
Vol. III (1969): Further Education.	1971	1·40
Vol. IV (1969): Teachers.	1971	1·70
Vol. V (1969): Finance and Awards.	1970	1·30
Vol. VI (1969): Universities.	1971	2·70
Ministry of Education for Northern Ireland:		
Education in Northern Ireland 1969. Cmd. 542. *HMSO Belfast*	1970	0·30
Northern Ireland Education Statistics No. 10. *HMSO Belfast*	1970	0·87½

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Northern Ireland Education Statistics No. 11. *HMSO Belfast*	1971	0·87½
Scottish Education Department: Education in Scotland 1970. Cmnd. 4605. *HMSO Edinburgh*	1971	0·80
Scottish Educational Statistics 1970. *HMSO Edinburgh*	1971	2·40
Education Statistics for the United Kingdom 1969.	1971	1·50
Audio-Visual Aids in Higher Scientific Education. *University Grants Committee*	1965	0·55
Certificate of Secondary Education. Some Suggestions for Teachers and Examiners. Examinations Bulletin No. 1.	1963	0·50
Children and their Primary Schools: A Report of the Central Advisory Council for Education [The Plowden Report]: Vol. 1: Report.	1967	1·25
Vol. 2: Appendices.	1967	1·62½
Demand for and Supply of Teachers 1963–86. Ninth Report of the National Advisory Council on the Training and Supply of Teachers.	1965	0·37½
The Education of Immigrants: Department of Education and Science Education Survey No. 13.	1971	0·85
The Education of Maladjusted Children: Department of Education and Science. Pamphlet 47.	1965	0·17½
15–18: Report of the Central Advisory Council for Education (England) [Crowther Report].	1959	0·62½
Half our Future: Report of the Central Advisory Council for Education (England) [Newsom Report].	1963	0·52½
Higher Education [Robbins Report]. Cmnd. 2154.	1963	1·20
Higher Education in Northern Ireland [Lockwood Report]. Cmd. 475. *HMSO Belfast*	1965	1·00
Health of the School Child, 1966–68. Report of the Chief Medical Officer of the Department of Education and Science.	1970	0·72½
Inside the Primary School (by John Blackie).	1967	0·25
Inside the Colleges of Further Education (by Adrian Bristow).	1970	0·30
Inside Comprehensive Schools (by Tyrell Burgess).	1970	0·30
Language Laboratories: Department of Education and Science Education Survey No. 3.	1968	0·20
List of Independent Schools in England and Wales: List 70.	1970	0·85
Persons with Qualifications in Engineering, Technology and Science 1959–69.	1971	2·25
Plan for Polytechnics and Other Colleges: Higher Education in the Further Education System. Cmnd. 3006.	1966	0·09
Primary Education in Northern Ireland. *HMSO Belfast*	1968	0·52½
Primary Education in Wales. Report of the Central Advisory Council for Education (Wales).	1968	1·62½
Public Education in Northern Ireland (Revised 1969). *HMSO Belfast*	1970	0·30
Public Schools Commission First Report: Vol. I: Report.	1968	1·12½
Vol. II: Appendices.	1968	2·25
Public Schools Commission Second Report: Vol. I: Report on Independent Day Schools and Direct Grant Grammar Schools.	1970	0·90
Vol. II: Appendices.	1970	1·50

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Vol. III: Scotland.		1970	0·75
Report of the Committee on Technician Courses and Examinations [Hazlegrave Report].		1969	0·62½
Report of the Study Group on the Government of Colleges of Education.		1966	0·15
Service by Youth. Report of a Committee of the Youth Service Development Council.		1966	0·09
A Teaching Council for England and Wales.		1970	0·22½
University Grants Committee: Annual Survey 1969–70.		1971	0·30
Youth and Community Work in the 70s. Report of the Youth Service Development Council.		1969	0·75

2. COI REFERENCE MATERIAL

Developments in Educational Techniques in Britain. Reference paper R5754. (Under revision.)	*COI*	1966	
Educational Television and Radio in Britain. Reference paper R5781.	*COI*	1971	
Teacher Training in Britain. Reference paper R5279.	*COI*	1971	
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Youth Services in Britain. Reference paper R5506.	*COI*	1963	
Britain and the Developing Countries: Education. Reference pamphlet R5802.	*COI*	1970	

3. OTHER PUBLICATIONS

ASSOCIATION OF COMMONWEALTH UNIVERSITIES:			
Commonwealth Universities Year Book 1970.	*The Association*	1970	9·75
United Kingdom Postgraduate Awards 1969–71. Biennial.	*The Association*	1969	0·50
Compendium of University Entrance Requirements, 1972–73. Committee of Vice-Chancellors and Principals of the Universities of the United Kingdom.	*The Association*	1971	1·30
BARON, GEORGE. A Bibliographical Guide to the English Education System. Third edition.	*Athlone Press*	1965	0·75
BENN, CAROLINE *and* SIMON, BRIAN. Halfway There (Comprehensive Schools).	*McGraw Hill*	1970	2·25
BLYTH, W. A. English Primary Education. A Sociological Description.			
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Vol. II: Background.	*Routledge*	1965	1·25
BRITISH COUNCIL *and* THE ASSOCIATION OF COMMONWEALTH UNIVERSITIES. Higher Education in the United Kingdom 1970–72: a Handbook for Students from Overseas and their advisers.	*Longmans*	1971	0·60
BRITISH BROADCASTING CORPORATION. Educational Radio and Television in Britain.	*BBC*	1966	1·05
BROOK, G. L. The Modern University.	*Deutsch*	1965	1·25
BURGESS, TYRELL. Guide to English Schools.	*Penguin*	1964	0·30
BURGESS, TYRELL *and* PRATT, JOHN. Policy and Practice: the Colleges of Advanced Technology.	*Allen Lane*	1970	5·25
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